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Samuel Collins

His

HISTORY

Book

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

BY

REV. C. A. GOODRICH.

HARTFORD.

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS.

1823.

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A

HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

OF

America.

BY

REV. CHARLES A. GOODRICH

WITH ENGRAVINGS

THIRD EDITION.

HARTFORD.

PUBLISHED BY BARBER & ROBINSON.

MDCCCXXIV.

DISTRICT OF CONNECTICUT, ss.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the eighth day of March, in the fo

L. S. seventh year of the Independence of the United States of America, Rev. Cha

A Goodrich, of the said District hath deposited in this office the title of a book, right whereof he claims as author, in the words following—to wit: "A history of the United St of America, by Rev. Charles A. Goodrich, with engravings." In conformity to the Act of the C gress of the United States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the co of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such copies, during the times the mentioned"

CHAS. A. INGERSOLL,
Clerk of the District of Connecticut.

A true copy of Record, examined and sealed by me.

CHAS. A. INGERSOLL,
Clerk of the District of Connecticut.

PREFACE.

Some time since, the author published a History of the United States for schools, the plan of which, though novel, met with general approbation. Encouraged by this sanction of a work, originally offered with much diffidence, the author ventures to bring before the public the present volume, founded upon the work above-mentioned, but somewhat expanded, both in respect to leading facts, and minute details.

As to the views which led the author to adopt a plan, in treating a historical subject, so widely departing from precedent and authority, he would refer to his preface to the school book for an explanation. Whether these views will satisfy every one of the excellence of the plan, or not, it is hoped, that they may at least rescue the work from being classed with that deluge of publications, which inundate the country, and which seem to have no better origin than conceit, or pecuniary speculation.

For the benefit of the reader who may not advert to the work already mentioned, the following explanations may be necessary.

This history of the United States is divided into eleven periods—each distinguished by some

peculiar characteristic. The main purpose of this division is, to aid the memory by presenting certain prominent eras, from which the whole subject of dates may be distinctly surveyed, and the object of attaching to each period some distinguishing trait is, that the recollection may the more readily assign events to their eras, and thus determine their dates. Thus, a person acquainted with our division of the subject, knows that all *discoveries*, or nearly all, belong to period I, and therefore lie between the years 1492 and 1607. He is therefore able to fix the date of any discovery, with sufficient accuracy for all practical purposes. The same will apply to events belonging to the other periods.

The engravings are introduced rather to aid the memory in retaining the general division, and the characteristics of each period, than for the purpose of embellishment.

Two sizes of type are employed. The matter in larger type is designed to give a brief outline of the history of the United States, and may be read in connexion. The matter in smaller type, is to be regarded rather in the light of notes, which, without studying exact regularity, are thrown in, as they may subserve the purposes of illustration, and completeness in the delineation of events; or as they may contribute to support the interest, and establish the recollections of the reader.

Introduction.

In entering upon the perusal of a volume with higher objects in view than those of mere amusement, it is well to place those objects distinctly before us. What advantages, then, do we propose to ourselves, in perusing the History of the United States? In general, it may be said, that the proper end of all reading is to make "*good men, and good citizens.*" But by what particular steps is History to subserve this end?

1. History sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism; and, by a natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such noble examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice.

2. History, to use the words of Professor Tytler, is the school of politics. That is, it opens the hidden springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions and fall of empires; it points out the influence which the manners of a people exert upon a government, and the influence which that government reciprocally exerts upon the manners of a people, it

illustrates the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the dangers of unbridled liberty, and the mischiefs of despotic power.

Observation. In a free country, where every man may be called upon to discharge important duties, either by his vote, or by the administration of office, it is the business of all to be more or less acquainted with the science of politics. Nothing can better instruct us in this, than the study of history.

3. History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe, his darker judgments, and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude, for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence on him; strengthens our confidence in his benevolence; and impresses us with a conviction of his justice.

4. Besides these advantages, the study of History, if properly conducted, offers others, of inferior importance, indeed, but still they are not to be disregarded. It chastens the imagination; improves the taste; furnishes matter for conversation and reflection; enlarges the range of thought; strengthens and disciplines the mind.

GENERAL DIVISION.

THE History of the United States of America may be divided into *Eleven Periods*, each distinguished by some striking characteristic, or remarkable circumstance.

The **First Period** will extend from the *Discovery of America, by Columbus*, 1492, to the first permanent English settlement in America, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, and is distinguished for DISCOVERIES.

Obs. Previous to the discovery of America in 1492, the inhabitants of Europe, Asia, and Africa, were of course ignorant of its existence. But soon after this event, several expeditions were fitted out, and came to make discoveries, in what was then called the "New World." Accordingly, between 1492 and 1607, the principal countries lying along the eastern coast of North America, were discovered, and more or less explored. As our history, during this period, embraces little more than accounts of these expeditions, we characterize it as remarkable for *discoveries*.

The **Second Period** will extend from the *Settlement of Jamestown*, 1607, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, and is distinguished for SETTLEMENTS.

Obs. During this period our history is principally occupied in detailing the various *settlements*, which were either effected, or attempted, within the boundaries of the United States. It includes, indeed, wars with the natives—disputes between proprietors of lands, and colonies—the formation of governments, &c. &c.; but these are circumstances which pertain to, and form a part of, the settlement of new countries. As this period embraces the settlement of most of the original States in the Union, viz. Massachusetts, including Maine, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New-Hampshire, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, North and South Carolina, and Virginia, it is therefore characterized as remarkable for *settlements*.

The **Third Period** will extend from the *Accession of William and Mary* to the throne of England, 1689, to the declaration of the war by England against France, called "the French and Indian War," 1756, and is remarkable for the three wars of KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, and GEORGE II.

Obs. So long as the Colonies remained attached to the English crown, they became involved, of course, in the wars of the mother country. Three times during this period, was war proclaimed between England and France, and, as the French had possession of Canada, and were leagued with several powerful tribes of Indians, as often did the colonies become the theatre of their hostile operations. This period is therefore most remarkable for these *three wars*.

The **Fourth Period** will extend from the *Declaration of war by England against France*, 1756, to the commencement of hostilities by Great Britian against the American Colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, and is distinguished for the FRENCH and INDIAN WAR.

The **Fifth Period** will extend from the Battle of Lexington, 1775, to the disbanding of the American Army at West Point, New-York, 1783, and is distinguished for the WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

The **Sixth Period** will extend from the *Disbanding of the Army*, 1783, to the inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789, and is distinguished for the FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

The **Seventh Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Washington*, 1789, to the inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States, 1797. This period is distinguished for WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The **Eighth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams*, 1797, to the Inauguration of Thomas Jefferson as president of the United States, 1801. This period is distinguished for ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

The **Ninth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Jefferson*, 1801, to the Inauguration of James Madison as president of the United States, 1809. This period is distinguished for JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The **Tenth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Madison*, 1809, to the Inauguration of James Monroe, as president of the United States, 1817. This period is distinguished for MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, and the late WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The **Eleventh Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Monroe*, 1817, to the present time, and is distinguished for MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

UNITED STATES.

Period I.

DISTINGUISHED FOR DISCOVERIES.

Extending from the Discovery of San Salvador by Columbus, 1492, *to the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia*, 1607.

Section I. The early discoveries on the Continent of America were made by the *Spaniards*, *English*, and *French*.

In these, the Spaniards took the lead; and have the honour of first communicating to Europe the intelligence of a New World.

For several years previously to the discovery of America, the attention of Europe had been drawn to the enterprises of the Portuguese, who were attempting to discover a passage to the East Indies, by doubling the southern extremity of Africa.

Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, roused by these enterprises, and strongly persuaded that a western passage to the East Indies was practicable, by steering across the Atlantic, determined to ascertain the point by experiment.

Accordingly, after encountering various difficulties he sailed from Spain, Friday, Aug. 3, 1492, with a small fleet, under the patronage of Ferdinand and Isabella, then on the united thrones of Castile and Arragon; and on the 12th of Oct. 1492, discovered the Island *San Salvador*. This Island is three thousand miles west of the

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES.

LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

1492.

HAR'TFORD.

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Canaries,—the most western land known at the time of Columbus' discovery,—and is now known as one of the Bahamas.

Columbus, after maturing his plan, first offered to sail under the patronage of the Senate of Genoa, but they treated his project as visionary. He next solicited the patronage of the Portuguese, but was denied.

Disappointed in these applications, and despairing of assistance from Henry VII. of England, to whom he had sent his brother Bartholomew, but, who, being captured, did not reach England for several years: Columbus next laid his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella.

Ferdinand was long deaf to his application; but through the favour of Isabella, who listened to his plans, a treaty was made with him. The queen sold her jewels and defrayed the expense of his outfit and voyage. His fleet consisted of the *Santa Maria, Pinta and Nigna,* with ninety men, victualled for a year. The whole expense was the small sum of about sixteen thousand dollars.

Columbus, when he sailed, expected to land in India;* but Providence was opening his way to an unknown world. He first touched at the Canaries, and thence stretched westward into seas as yet unexplored.

After sailing about two months, the crew became anxious and discontented. They were appalled at the extent of their voyage, and despaired of accomplishing the purposes for which it was undertaken. Columbus, however, in the midst of mutiny, and while every heart around him sunk under the most gloomy apprehensions, remained firm and inflexible. He contrived to pacify the spirit of rebellion, by promising to return, if land should not be discovered within three days.

The night of the 11th of October, 1492, was memorable to Columbus, and to the world. Convinced from appearances that land was near, he ordered the sails furled, and a watch set. No eye, however, was shut. All on board was suspense and sleepless expectation.

About midnight, the cry of *land! land!* was heard on board the Pinta. The morning came,—October 12th O. S.—and realized their anticipations. The island was distinctly in view. The occasion demanded an acknowledgment to HIM, who had so auspiciously guided their way. All, therefore, bowed in humble gratitude, and joined in a hymn of thanks to God.

* It has been stated, and perhaps with truth, that Columbus expected to find a western continent; but still the best authorities unite in saying, that his object was to discover a western passage to *India*.

Columbus, in a rich dress, and with a drawn sword, soon after landed with his men, with whom having kneeled and kissed the ground with tears of joy, he took formal possession of the Island, in the name of Queen Isabella, his patron. On landing, the Spaniards were surprised to find a race of people quite unlike any that they had ever seen before. They were of a dusky, copper colour—naked—beardless, with long black hair, floating on their shoulders, or bound in tresses round their heads. The natives were still more surprised at the sight of the Spaniards, whom they considered, as the children of the sun, their idol. The ships they looked upon as animals, with eyes of lightning, and voices of thunder.

Having spent some time in examining the country, and in an amicable traffic with the natives, Columbus set sail on his return. He was overtaken by a storm which had nearly proved fatal. During the storm, Columbus hastily enclosed in a cake of wax, a short account of his voyage and discovery, which he put into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea. This he did, hoping that if he perished, it might fall into the hands of some navigator, or be cast ashore, and thus the knowledge of his discovery be preserved to the world. But the storm abated, and he arrived safe in Spain, March 15th, 1493.

For this discovery, it being the first, and having laid the foundation for all the subsequent discoveries in America, Columbus was doubtless entitled to the honour of giving a name to the New World. But he was robbed of it by the address of Americus Vespucius. This adventurer was a Florentine who sailed to the New World in 1499, with one Alonzo Ojeda, a gallant and active officer, who had accompanied Columbus in his first voyage. On his return, he published so flattering an account of his voyage, that his name was given to the continent with manifest injustice to Columbus.

After this, Columbus made several other voyages, but did not discover the *continent of America* until Aug. 1, 1498, during his *third* voyage, at which time he made the land, now called Terra Firma,—South America.

During this voyage Columbus was destined to experience severe afflictions. After his departure from Spain, having been appointed governor of the New World, his enemies, by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint another in his place. At the same time the king was induced to give orders that Columbus should be seized and sent to Spain. This order was executed with rigid severity, and the heroic Columbus returned to Spain in irons!

On his arrival, he was set at liberty by the king, but he never recovered his authority. Soon after a fourth voyage which he

made, finding Isabella his patroness, dead, and himself neglected, he sunk beneath his misfortunes and infirmities, and died, May 20, 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

Section II. In May, 1497, John Cabot, and his son, Sebastian Cabot, commenced a voyage of discovery, under the patronage of Henry VII. king of England; and on the 24th of June, discovered land, which, being the first they had seen, they called, *Prima Vista.* This was the Island of *Newfoundland.* Leaving this, they soon after fell in with a smaller island, which they named *St. Johns;* thence, continuing westerly, they made the first discovery* of the *Continent of America*, and ranged its coast from Labrador to Virginia, or according to others, to Florida.

Section III. The French attempted no discoveries on the American coast until 1524. This year Francis I. commissioned Verrazano, a Florentine, for this purpose. He ranged the coast from Florida to the 50th degree of North Latitude, and named the country New France.

Section IV. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under commission of Queen Elizabeth, arrived in America, entered Pamplico Sound, now in North Carolina, and thence proceeded to Roanoke, an island near the mouth of Albemarle Sound. This country he took possession of, and, on returning to England, gave so splendid a description of its beauty and fertility, that Queen Elizabeth bestowed upon it the name of *Virginia*, in celebration of her reign, and in allusion to her being unmarried.

Section V. In 1602, Capt. Bartholomew Gosnold, from Falmouth, England, discovered and gave name to *Cape Cod.*

* There follow the authority of Dr. Holmes in his "American Annals," who places the first discovery of the Continent by Columbus, in 1498, as already related.

Gosnold, being bound to Virginia, his discovery was accidental. He named Cape Cod, in reference to the abundance of Codfish about it. Coasting south, he discovered Nantucket, Buzzard's Bay, Martha's Vineyard, and one of the Elizabeth Islands.

Other expeditions were fitted out and came to America for discovery; we have however noticed above the leading adventurers and their discoveries during this period.

Notes.

Section VI. As we are now about to enter upon a period which will exhibit our ancestors as inhabitants of this new world, it will be interesting to know what was its aspect when they first set their feet upon its shores.

STATE OF THE COUNTRY.—On the arrival of the first settlers, North America was almost one unbroken wilderness. From the recesses of these forests were heard the panther, the catamount, the bear, the wildcat, the wolf, and other beasts of prey. From the thickets rushed the buffalo, the elk, the moose, and the carrabo; and scattered on the mountains, and plains, were seen the stag and fallow deer. Numerous flocks of the feathered tribe enlivened the air, and multitudes of fish filled the rivers, or glided along the shores. The spontaneous productions of the soil, also, were found to be various and abundant. In all parts of the land grew grapes, which historians have likened to the ancient grapes of Eshcol. In the south, were found mulberries, plumbs, melons, cucumbers, tobacco, corn, peas, beans, potatoes, squashes, pompions, &c. Acorns, walnuts, chesnuts, wild cherries, currants, strawberries, whortleberries, in the season of them, grow wild in every quarter of the country.

VII. ABORIGINES.—The country was inhabited by numerous tribes or clans of Indians. Of their *number*, at the period the English settled among them, no certain estimate has been transmitted to us. They did not probably much exceed 150,000 within the compass of the thirteen original states.*

In their *physical character*, the different Indian tribes, within the boundaries of the United States, were nearly the same. Their persons were tall, straight, and well proportioned. Their skins were red, or of a copper brown; their eyes black, their hair long, black, and coarse. In constitution they were firm and vigorous, capable of sustaining great fatigue and hardship.

As to their *general* character, they were quick of apprehension, and not wanting in genius. At times, they were friendly, and even courteous. In council, they were distinguished for gravity and eloquence: in war, for bravery and address. When provoked to anger, they were sullen and retired; and when determined upon revenge, no danger would deter them; neither absence nor time could cool them. If captured by an enemy, they never asked life, nor would they betray emotions of fear, even in view of the tomahawk, or of the kindling faggot.

They had no *books*, or written *literature*, except rude hieroglyphics; and *education* among them was confined to the arts of war, hunting, fishing, and the few manufactures which existed among them, most of which every male was more or less instructed in. Their language was rude, but sonorous, metaphorical, and energetic. It was well suited to the purposes of public speaking, and, when accompanied by the impassioned gestures, and uttered with the deep guttural tones of the savage, it is said to have had a singularly wild and impressive effect. They had some few war songs, which were little more than an unmeaning

* This is the estimate of Dr Trumbull.

chorus, out, it is believed, they had no other compositions which were preserved.

Their *arts* and *manufactures* were confined to the construction of wigwams, bows and arrows, wampum, ornaments, stone hatchets, mortars for pounding corn, to the dressing of skins, weaving of coarse mats from the bark of trees, or a coarse sort of hemp, &c.

Their *agriculture* was small in extent, and the articles they cultivated, were few in number. Corn, beans, peas, potatoes, melons, and a few others of a similar kind, were all.

Their *skill in medicine* was confined to a few simple prescriptions and operations. Both the cold and warm bath were often applied, and a considerable number of plants were used with success. For some diseases they knew no remedy, in which case they resorted to their *Powow*, or priest, who undertook the removal of the disease by means of sorcery.

It may be remarked, however, that the *diseases* to which the Indians were liable, were few, compared with those which prevail in civilized society.

The *employments* of the *men* were principally *hunting*, *fishing*, and *war*. The *women* dressed the food; took charge of the domestic concerns; tilled their narrow and scanty fields; and performed almost all the drudgery connected with their household affairs.

The *amusements* of the men were principally leaping, shooting at marks, dancing, gaming, and hunting, in all of which they made the most violent exertions. Their dances were usually performed round a large fire. In their war dances they sung, or recited the feats which they or their ancestors had achieved; represented the manner in which they were performed, and wrought themselves up to an inexpressible degree of martial enthusiasm. The females occasionally joined in some of these sports, but had none peculiar to themselves.

Their *dress* was various. In summer, they wore little besides a covering about the waist; but in winter, they clothed themselves in the skins of wild beasts. They were exceedingly fond of ornaments. On days of show and festivity, their sachems wore mantles of deer-skin, embroidered with white beads, or copper, or they were painted with various devices. Hideousness was the object aimed at in painting themselves. A chain of fish-bones about the neck, or the skin of a wildcat, was a sign of royalty.

For *habitations*, the Indians had *weekwams*, or wigwams as pronounced by the English. These originally consisted of a strong pole, erected in the centre, around which, at the distance of ten or twelve feet, other poles were driven obliquely into the

ground, and fastened to the centre pole at the top. Their coverings were of mats, or barks of trees, so well adjusted as to render them dry and comfortable.

Their *domestic utensils* extended not beyond a hatchet of stone, a few shells and sharp stones, which they used for knives: stone mortars for pounding corn, and some mats and skins upon which they slept. They sat, and ate, and lodged on the ground. With shells and stones they scalped their enemies, dressed their game, cut their hair, &c. They made nets of thread, twisted from the bark of Indian hemp, or of the sinews of the moose and deer. For fish-hooks they used bones which were bent.

Their *food* was of the coarsest and simplest kind—the flesh, and even the entrails of all kinds of wild beasts and birds; and in their proper season, green corn, beans, peas, &c. &c. which they cultivated, and other fruits, which the country spontaneously produced. Flesh and fish they roasted on a stick, or broiled on the fire. In some instances they boiled their meat and corn by putting hot stones in water. Corn they parched, especially in the winter, and upon this they lived in the absence of other food.

The *money* of the Indians called *wampum*, consisted of small beads wrought from shells, and strung on belts, and in chains. The wampum of the New-England Indians was black, blue, and white. That of the Six Nations was of a purple colour. Six of the white beads, and three of black, or blue, became of the value of a penny. A belt of wampum was given as a token of friendship, or as a seal or confirmation of a treaty.

There was little among them that could be called *society*. Except when roused by some strong excitement, the men were generally indolent, taciturn, and unsocial. The women were too degraded and oppressed to think of much besides their toils. Removing too, as the seasons changed, or as the game grew scarce, or as danger from a stronger tribe threatened, there was little opportunity for forming those local attachments, and those social ties, which spring from a long residence in a particular spot. Their langnage, also, though energetic, was too barren to serve the purposes of familiar conversation. In order to be understood and felt, it required the aid of strong and animated gesticulation, which could take place only when great occasions excited them. It seems, therefore, that they drew no considerable part of their enjoyments from intercourse with one another. Female beauty had little power over the men; and all other pleasures gave way to the strong impulses of public festivity, or burning captives, or seeking murderous revenge, or the chase, or war, or glory.

War was the favourite employment of the savages of North America. It roused them from the lethargy into which they fell, when they ceased from the chase, and furnished them an opportunity to distinguish themselves—to achieve deeds of glory, and taste the sweets of revenge. Their weapons were bows and arrows, headed with flint or other hard stones, which they discharged with great precision and force. The southern Indians used targets made of bark; the Mohawks clothed themselves with skins, as a defence against the arrows of their enemies. When they fought in the open field, they rushed to the attack with incredible fury, and, at the same time, uttered their appalling war whoop. Those whom they had taken captive they often tortured, with every variety of cruelty, and to their dying agonies added every species of insult. If peace was concluded on, the chiefs of the hostile tribes ratified the treaty by smoking in succession the same pipe, called the *calumet*, or pipe of peace.

The *government* of the Indians in general, was an absolute monarchy; though it differed in different tribes. The will of the sachem was law. In matters of moment, he consulted, however, his counsellors; but his decisions were final. War and peace, among some tribes, seem to have been determined on in a council formed of old men, distinguished by their exploits. When in council, they spoke at pleasure, and always listened to the speaker, with profound and respectful silence. "When propositions for war or peace were made, or treaties proposed to them, by the colonial governours, they met the ambassadors in council, and at the end of each paragraph, or proposition, the principal sachem delivered a short stick to one of his council, intimating that it was his peculiar duty to remember that paragraph. This was repeated till every proposal was finished; they then retired to deliberate among themselves. After their deliberations were ended, the sachem, or some counsellors to whom he had delegated this office, replied to every paragraph in its turn, with an exactness scarcely exceeded in the written correspondence of civilized powers. Each man actually remembered what was committed to him, and with his assistance, the person who replied remembered the whole."

The *religious notions* of the natives consisted of traditions, mingled with many superstitions. Like the ancient Greeks, Romans, Persians, Hindoos, &c. they believed in the existence of two gods, the one *good*, who was the superior, and whom they styled the Great, or Good Spirit; the other *evil*. They worshipped both; and of both formed images of stone, to which they paid religious homage. Besides these, they worshipped various other deities—such as fire, water, thunder—any thing

which they conceived to be superior to themselves, and capable of doing them injury. The manner of worship was to sing and dance round large fires. Besides dancing, they offered prayers and sometimes sweet scented powder. In Virginia, the Indians offered blood, deer's suet, and tobacco. Of the creation and the deluge they had distinct traditions.

Marriage among them was generally a temporary contract. The men chose their wives agreeable to fancy, and put them away at pleasure. Marriage was celebrated, however, with some ceremony, and in many instances was observed with fidelity, not unfrequently it was as lasting as life. Polygamy was common among them.

Their *treatment of females* was cruel and oppressive. They were considered by the men as slaves, and treated as such. Those forms of decorum between the sexes, which lay the foundation for the respectful and gallant courtesy, with which women are treated in civilized society, were unknown among them. Of course, females were not only required to perform severe labour, but often felt the full weight of the passions and caprices of the men.

The *rites of burial* among the Indians, varied but little throughout the continent. They generally dug holes in the ground, with sharpened stakes. In the bottom of the grave were laid sticks, upon which the corpse, wrapped in skins and mats, was deposited. The arms, utensils, paints, and ornaments of the deceased were buried with him, and a mound of earth raised over his grave. Among some tribes in New England, and among the Five Nations, the dead were buried in a sitting posture, with their faces towards the east. During the burial they uttered the most lamentable cries, and continued their mourning for several days.

The *origin* of the Indians, inhabiting the country, on the arrival of the English colonists, is involved in much obscurity, and several different answers have been given by learned men to the inquiry, whence did they come to America? The opinion best supported is, that they originated in Asia, and that at some former period, not now to be ascertained, they emigrated from that country to America, over which, in succeeding years, their descendants spread. This opinion is rendered the more probable by the fact, that the figure, complexion, dress, manners, customs, &c. &c. of the nations of both continents are strikingly similar. That they *might* have emigrated from the eastern continent is evident, since the distance between the East Cape of Asia, and Cape Prince of Wales in America, across the streights of Behring, is only about forty miles, a much shorter distance than

savages frequently sail in their canoes. Besides this, the streight is sometimes frozen over.

Reflections.

VIII. We shall find it pleasant and profitable, occasionally to pause in our history, and consider what instruction may be drawn from the portion of it that has been perused.

In the story of Columbus, we are introduced to a man of genius, energy, and enterprise. We see him forming a new, and in that age, a mighty project; and having matured his plan, we see him set himself vigorously about its execution. For a time, he is either treated as a visionary, or baffled by opposition. But, neither discouraged, nor dejected, he steadily pursues his purpose, surmounts every obstacle, and at length spreads his sails upon the unknown waters of the Atlantic. A kind Providence auspiciously guides his way, and crowns his enterprise with the unexpected discovery of a new world.

While we admire the lofty qualities of Columbus, and look with wonder at the consequences which have resulted from his discovery, let us emulate his decision, energy and perseverance. Many are the occasions in the present world, on which it will be important to summon these to our aid; and by their means, many useful objects may be accomplished, which, without them, would be unattained.

But, while we thus press forward in the career of usefulness —while we aim to accomplish for our fellow men all the amount of good in our power, let us moderate our expectations of reward here, by the consideration that Columbus died the victim of ingratitude and disappointment.

Another consideration, of still deeper interest, is suggested by the story of Columbus. In his first voyage, he contemplated chiefly the discovery of a passage to India. We who live to mark the wonderful events which have flowed from his discovery, within the short space of three centuries, cannot but advert with awe to Him, who attaches to the actions of a single individual, a train of consequences so stupendous and unexpected. How lightly soever, then, we may think of our conduct, let us remember that the invisible hand of Providence may be connecting with our smallest actions the most momentous results, to ourselves and others.

With respect to Americus Vespucius, it may be observed, that although he deprived Columbus, of the merited honour of giving his name to the new world, and gained this distinction for himself—still, his name will ever remain stigmatized as having appropriated that to himself, which fairly belonged to another.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES.

SETTLEMENT OF JAMESTOWN,

1607.

HARTFORD.

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Period II.

DISTINGUISHED FOR SETTLEMENTS.

Extending from the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, *to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England,* 1689.

Section I. Prior to the year 1607, a period of one hundred and fifteen years from the discovery of San Salvador, by Columbus, attempts had been made to effect settlements in various parts of North America; but no one proved successful, until the settlement at Jamestown.

In 1606, King James I. of England, granted letters patent,—an exclusive right, or privilege,—to two companies, called the London and Plymouth Companies: by which they were authorized to possess the lands, in America, lying between the 34th and 45th degrees of north latitude; the southern part, called South Virginia, to the London, and the northern, called North Virginia, to the Plymouth Company.

Under this patent, the London Company sent Capt. Christopher Newport to Virginia, Dec. 20th, 1606, with a colony of one hundred and five persons, to commence a settlement on the island Roanoke,—now in North Carolina.—After a tedious voyage of four months, by the circuitous route of the West Indies, he entered Chesapeake Bay, having been driven north of the place of his destination.

Here it was concluded to land; and, proceeding up a river, called by the Indians, Powhatan, but, by the colony, James River, on a beautiful peninsula, in May, 1607, they began the first permanent settlement in North America, and called it *Jamestown*.

The government of this colony was formed in England, by the London Company. It consisted of a council of seven persons, appointed by the Company, with a president chosen by the council, from their number, who had two votes. All matters of moment were examined by this council, and determined by a majority. Capt. Newport brought over the names of this council, carefully sealed in a box, which was opened after their arrival.

Among the most enterprising and useful members of this colony and one of its magistrates, was Capt. John Smith. As he acted a distinguished part in the early history of the colony of Virginia, a brief sketch of his life will be interesting.

He was born in Willoughby, in Lincolnshire, England, in 1579. From his earliest youth, he discovered a roving and romantic genius, and appeared irresistibly bent on extravagant and daring enterprises. At the age of thirteen, becoming tired of study, he disposed of his satchel and books, with the intention of escaping to sea. But the death of his father, just at that time, frustrated his plans for the present, and threw him upon guardians, who, to repress the waywardness of his genius, confined him to a counting room. From a confinement so irksome, however, he contrived to escape not long after, and, with ten shillings in his pocket, entered the train of a young nobleman, travelling to France.

On their arrival at Orleans, he received a discharge from further attendance upon lord Bertie, who advanced him money to return to England.

Smith had no wish, however, to return. With the money he had received, he visited Paris, from which he proceeded to the low countries, where he enlisted into the service as a soldier. Having continued some time in this capacity, he was induced to accompany a gentleman to Scotland, who promised to recommend him to the notice of king James. Being disappointed

however in this, he returned to England, and visited the place of his birth. Not finding the company there that suited his romantic turn, he erected a booth in some wood, and in the manner of a recluse, retired from society, devoting himself to the study of military history and tactics, diverting himself, at intervals, with his horse and lance.

Recovering about this time a part of his father's estate, which had been in dispute, in 1596, he again commenced his travels, being then only seventeen years of age. His first stage was Flanders, where meeting with a Frenchman, who pretended to be heir to a noble family, he was prevailed upon to accompany him to France. On their arrival at St. Valory, in Picardy, by the connivance of the shipmaster, the Frenchman and attendants robbed him of his effects, and succeeded in making their escape.

Eager to pursue his travels, he endeavoured to procure a place on board a man of war. In one of his rambles, searching for a ship that would receive him, he accidently met one of the villains concerned in robbing him. Without exchanging a word, they both instantly drew their swords. The contest was severe, but Smith succeeded in wounding and disarming his antagonist, and obliged him to confess his guilt. After this rencounter, having received pecuniary assistance from an acquaintance, the earl of Ployer, he travelled along the French coast to Bayonne, and thence crossed to Marseilles, visiting and observing every thing in his course, which had reference to naval or military architecture.

At Marseilles he embarked for Italy in company with a number of pilgrims. But here also new troubles awaited him. During the voyage, a tempest arising, the ship was forced into Toulon, after leaving which, contrary winds so impeded their progress, that in a fit of rage, the pilgrims, imputing their ill fortune to the presence of a heretic, threw him into the sea.

Being a good swimmer, he was enabled to reach the island of St. Mary, off Nice, at no great distance, where he was taken on board a ship, in which, altering his course, he sailed to Alexandria, in Egypt, and thence coasted the Levant. Having spent some time in this region of country, he sailed on his return, and on leaving the ship received about two thousand dollars, as his portion of a rich prize, which they had taken during the voyage.

Smith landed at Antibes. He now travelled through Italy, crossed the Adriatic, and passed into Stirria, to the seat of Ferdinand archduke of Austria. The emperor being at that time at war with the Turks, he entered his army as a volunteer

By means of his valour and ingenuity, aided by his military knowledge and experience, he soon distinguished himself, and was advanced to the command of a company, consisting of two hundred and fifty horsemen, in the regiment of count Meldrick, a nobleman of Transylvania.

The regiment in which he served was engaged in several hazardous enterprises, in which Smith exhibited a bravery admired by all the army, and when Meldrick left the imperial service for that of his native prince, Smith followed.

At the siege of Regal he was destined to new adventures. The Ottomans deriding the slow advance of the Transylvania army, the lord Turbisha despatched a messenger with a challenge, that for the diversion of the ladies of the place, he would fight any captain of the christian troops.

The honour of accepting this challenge was determined by lot, and fell on Smith. At the time appointed the two champions appeared in the field on horseback, and in the presence of the armies, and of the ladies of the insulting Ottoman, rushed impetuously to the attack. A short, but desperate conflict ensued, at the end of which Smith was seen bearing the head of the lifeless Turbisha in triumph to his general.

The fall of the chief filled his friend Crualgo with indignation, and roused him to avenge his death. Smith accordingly soon after received a challenge from him, which he did not hesitate to accept, and the two exasperated combatants, upon their chargers, fell with desperate fury upon each other. Victory again followed the faulchion of Smith, who sent the Turk headlong to the ground.

It was now the turn of Smith to make the advance. He despatched a message therefore to the Turkish ladies, that if they were desirous of more diversion of a similar kind, they should be welcome to his head, in case their third champion could take it.

Bonamalgro tendered his services, and haughtily accepted the Christian's challenge. When the day arrived the spectators assembled, and the combatants entered the field. It was an hour of deep anxiety to all; as the horsemen approached, a deathless silence pervaded the multitude. A blow from the sabre of the Turk brought Smith to the ground, and for a moment it seemed as if the deed of death was done. Smith however was only stunned. He rose like a lion, when he shakes the dew from his mane for the fight, and vaulting into his saddle, made his faulchion "shed fast atonement for its first delay." It is hardly necessary to add, that the head of Bonamalgro was added to the number.

Smith was received with transports of joy by the prince of

Transylvania, who after the capture of the place, presented him with his picture set in gold, granted him a pension of three hundred ducats a year, and conferred on him a coat of arms, bearing three Turk's heads in a shield.

In a subsequent battle between the Transylvanian army, and a body of Turks and Tartars, the former was defeated, with a loss of many killed and wounded. Among the wounded was the gallant Smith. His dress bespoke his consequence, and he was treated kindly. On his recovery from his wounds he was sold to the Basha Bogul, who sent him as a present to his mistress at Constantinople, assuring her that he was a Bohemian nobleman, whom he had conquered, and whom he now presented to her as her slave.

The present proved more acceptable to the lady than her lord intended. As she understood Italian, in that language Smith informed her of his country and quality, and by his singular address, and engaging manners, won the affection of her heart.

Designing to secure him to herself, but fearing lest some misfortune should befall him, she sent him to her brother, a bashaw, on the borders of the sea of Asoph, with a direction that he should be initiated into the manners and language, as well as the religion of the Tartars.

From the terms of her letter, her brother suspected her design, and resolved to disappoint her. Immediately after Smith's arrival, therefore, he ordered him to be stripped, his head and beard to be shaven, and with an iron collar about his neck, and a dress of hair cloth, he was driven forth to labour among some christian slaves.

The circumstances of Smith were now peculiarly afflicting. He could indulge no hope, except from the attachment of his mistress, but as her distance was great, it was improbable that she would soon become acquainted with the story of his misfortunes.

In the midst of his distress, an opportunity to escape presented itself, but under circumstances, which, to a person of a less adventurous spirit, would have served only to heighten this distress. His employment was threshing, at the distance of a league from the residence of the bashaw, who daily visited him, but treated him with rigorous severity, and in fits of anger even abused him with blows. This last was treatment to which the independent spirit of Smith could not submit. Watching a favourable opportunity, on an occasion of the tyrant's visit, and when his attendants were absent, he levelled his threshing instrument at him, and laid him in the dust.

He then hastily filled a bag with grain, and mounting the bashaw's horse, put himself upon fortune. Directing his course

towards a desert, he entered its recesses, and continuing to conceal himself in its obscurities for several days, at length made his escape. In sixteen days he arrived at Exapolis on the river Don, where meeting with the Russian garrison, the commander treated him kindly, and gave him letters of recommendation to other commanders in that region.

He now travelled through a part of Russia, and Poland, and at length reached his friends in Transylvania. At Leipsic he enjoyed the pleasure of meeting his colonel count Meldrick, and Sigismund, prince of Transylvania, who presented him with fifteen hundred ducats. His fortune being thus in a measure repaired, he travelled through Germany, France and Spain, and having visited the kingdom of Morocco, returned once more to England.

Such is a rapid view of the life of this interesting adventurer, down to his arrival in his native land. At this time the settlement of America was occupying the attention of many distinguished men in England. The life of Smith, united to his fondness for enterprises of danger and difficulty, had prepared him to embark with zeal in a project so novel and sublime as that of exploring the wilds of a newly discovered continent.

He was soon attached to the expedition. about to sail under Newport, and was appointed one of the magistrates of the colony sent over at that time. Before the arrival of the colony, his colleagues in office becoming jealous of his influence, arrested him, on the absurd charge that he designed to murder the council, usurp the government, and make himself king of Virginia. He was therefore rigorously confined during the remainder of the voyage.

On their arrival in the country he was liberated, but could not obtain a trial, although in the tone of conscious integrity, he repeatedly demanded it. The infant colony was soon involved in perplexity and danger. Notwithstanding Smith had been calumniated, and his honour deeply wounded, his was not the spirit to remain idle when his services were needed. Nobly disdaining revenge, he offered his assistance, and by his talents, experience, and indefatigable zeal, furnished important aid to the infant colony.

Continuing to assert his innocence, and to demand a trial, the time at length arrived when his enemies could postpone it no longer. After a fair hearing of the case, he was honourably acquitted of the charges alleged against him, and soon after took his seat in the council.

The affairs of the colony becoming more settled, the active spirit of Smith prompted him to explore the neighbouring country. In an attempt to ascertain the source of Chickahominy ri-

ver, he ascended in a barge as far as the stream was uninterrupted. Designing to proceed still further, he left the barge in the keeping of the crew, with strict injunctions on no account to leave her, and with two Englishmen, and two Indians left the party. But no sooner was he out of view, than the crew, impatient of restraint, repaired on board the barge, and proceeding some distance down the stream, landed at a place where a body of Indians lay in ambush, by whom they were seized.

By means of the crew, the rout of Smith was ascertained, and a party of Indians were immediately despatched to take him. On coming up with him, they fired, killed the Englishmen, and wounded himself. With great presence of mind, he now tied his Indian guide to his left arm, as a shield from the enemies' arrows, while with his musket he despatched three of the most forward of the assailants.

In this manner he continued to retreat towards his canoe, while the Indians, struck with admiration of his bravery followed with respectful caution. Unfortunately coming to a sunken spot filled with mire, while engrossed with eyeing his pursuers, he sunk so deep as to be unable to extricate himself, and was forced to surrender.

Fruitful in expedients, to avert immediate death, he presented an ivory compass to the chief, whose attention was arrested by the vibrations of the needle. Taking advantage of the impression which he had thus made, partly by signs, and partly by language, he excited their wonder still more by telling them of its singular powers.

Their wonder however seemed soon to abate, and their attention returned to their prisoner. He was now bound, and tied to a tree, and the savages were preparing to direct their arrows at his breast. At this instant the chief, holding up the compass, they laid down their arms, and led him in triumph to Powhatan their king.

Powhatan and his council doomed him to death, as a man whose courage and genius were peculiarly dangerous to the Indians. Preparations were accordingly made, and when the time arrived, Smith was led out to execution. His head was laid upon a stone, and a club presented to Powhatan, who himself claimed the honour of becoming the executioner. The savages in silence were circling round, and the giant arm of Powhatan had already raised the club to strike the fatal blow, when to his astonishment the young and beautiful Pocahontas, his daughter, with a shriek of terror, rushed from the throng, and threw herself upon the body of Smith. At the same time she cast an imploring look towards her furious but astonished father, and in

all the eloquence of mute, but impassioned sorrow, besought his life.

The remainder of the scene was honourable to Powhatan. The club of the chief was still uplifted, but a father's pity had touched his heart, and the eye that had at first kindled with wrath was now fast losing its fierceness. He looked round as if to collect his fortitude, or perhaps to find an excuse for his weakness, in the pity of the attendants. A similar sympathy had melted the savage throng, and seemed to join in the petition, which the weeping Pocahontas felt, but durst not utter, "My father let the prisoner live." Powhatan raised his daughter, and the captive, scarcely yet assured of safety, from the earth.

Shortly after Powhatan dismissed Capt. Smith with assurances of friendship, and the next morning, accompanied with a guard of twelve men, he arrived safely at Jamestown, after a captivity of seven weeks.*

In 1609, circumstances having arisen to interrupt the friendly dispositions of Powhatan towards the colony, he plotted their entire destruction. His design was to attack them unapprised, and to cut them off at a blow.

In a dark and stormy night, the heroic Pocahontas hastened alone to Jamestown, and disclosed the inhuman plot of her father. The colony were thus put on their guard, and their ruin averted.

It may be interesting to add concerning Pocahontas, that some time after this she was married to an English gentleman, by the name of Rolfe, with whom she visited England. She embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She left one son, who had several daughters, the descendants of whom inherited her lands in Virginia, and are among the most respectable families in that State.

Section II. In the early part of this year, 1609, the London Company surrendered their rights to the king, and obtained a new charter. Under this charter Thomas West, Lord Delaware, was appointed governour for life.

Towards the close of the year, the colony at Jamestown, amounting to five hundred inhabitants, was reduced in six months, by pestilence, to sixty. Disheartened by this fearful calamity, they resolved to leave the country, and return to England. They therefore embarked on board some vessels, just arrived from Bermuda; but meeting lord Delaware, the new governour,

* Burk's Virginia.

with one hundred and eighty men and provisions, they returned with them to their settlement, and the affairs of the colony again began to prosper.

Section III. In 1614, some Dutch adventurers built a fort at Albany, on Hudson's river. This commenced the settlement, and laid the foundation of that city. The next year, a fort was built, and a settlement begun, by the Dutch, on the Island of Manhattan, now New-York.

Hudson's river derived its name from Henry Hudson, who entered, and gave name to it, 1608. At this time, or according to others, in 1609, he ascended the river to the place were Albany now stands. Hudson was in the service of the Dutch East India Company, or sold his claims to them. The Dutch, accordingly, took possession of the country, naming it New Netherlands. New-York, they called New-Amsterdam. These names they retained, till the conquest of the country, by the English, in 1664.

Section IV. In 1614, Capt. John Smith sailed from England, with two ships, to America. He ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod. On his return to England, he presented a Map of the country to Prince Charles, who named it NEW-ENGLAND.

Six years from this, Dec. 22, 1620, a colony, commonly known by the name of *Puritans*, landed at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, and soon after began the *first permanent settlement in New-England*. These colonists were originally from England; but were driven thence by the arm of persecution, for urging a more thorough reformation in the Church of England.

They fled from England, first to Amsterdam, in Holland, in 1607, with their pastor, the Rev. Mr. Robinson. From Amsterdam, they soon after removed to Leyden, where they continued, until they embarked for America.

Among the motives which influenced them to remove to America, the prospect of enjoying "a

purer worship and a greater liberty of conscience," was the principal. To secure these objects, they were willing to become exiles from a civilized country, and encounter the dangers and privations which might meet them in a wilderness.

Having resolved on a removal to America, they concluded to settle on Hudson's river, and to live in a distinct body, under the protection of the London, or South Virginia Company.

Having with some difficulty obtained a grant from the Virginia Company, they speedily prepared for the voyage, departed from Leyden in July, touched at South-Hampton, England, whence they sailed in August; but on account of a leak in one of their ships, they were twice compelled to put back.

On the sixth of September following, they finally bid adieu to their country, and on the ninth of November, discovered Cape Cod. It is said, that the master of the vessel was a Dutchman, and was bribed in Holland, to carry them to the north of the Hudson, that they might not disturb the Dutch there; who, though compelled in 1614, by Capt. Argal from Jamestown, to acknowledge the Sovereignty of King James, and the governour of Virginia, had not long after thrown off the British yoke.

They soon perceived themselves to be beyond the limits of the company's patent, from which they had derived their title. But, winter being at hand, and fearing to encounter the dangers of the sea, on an unknown coast, they determined to seek a place of settlement where they were.

Before landing, "having devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politick," forty-one signing a solemn contract, according to the provisions of which they were to be governed. Mr. John Carver was elected governour for one year.

Parties were now despatched to fix upon a spot for their settlement. Several days were employed for this purpose, during which, a number of Indians were seen, who fled on being approached. They also discovered baskets of corn hid in the sand, which served for seed the ensuing spring.

At length, a suitable spot was selected for a settlement, and a house immediately erected. The colony was divided into nineteen families, each of which built its own cottage. On Lord's day, Dec. 31, they attended public worship, for the first time on shore, and named the place *Plymouth.*

Section V. The same month, (Nov.) that the Puritans arrived on the coast from England, King James I. issued a patent to the duke of Lenox,

Ferdinando Gorges, and others, styling them, "The Council of Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for planting and governing New-England in America." This Patent granted to them the territory between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude, and was the *foundation* of all the subsequent patents which divided the country.

Section VI. In March, 1621, the colony of Plymouth, through Governour Carver, entered into a league of friendship, commerce, and mutual defence with Masassoit, the great sachem of the neighbouring Indians. This treaty which was strictly observed until the breaking out of Phillip's war, (a period of more than fifty years,) gave general peace to the colony, and laid the foundation for their intimate and amicable correspondence with the neighbouring Indian tribes.

The person, chiefly instrumental in bringing this event to pass was Samoset, a sagamore of the country, laying at the distance of about five days journey. He was the first visitant of the colony at Plymouth, and greatly surprised the inhabitants, by calling out as he entered their village, "Welcome Englishmen! Welcome Englishmen!" He had conversed with the English fishermen who had come to the eastern coast, and had learned some of the language. He informed the colony that the place where they were settled, was called by the Indians *Patuxet;* that five years before a plague had swept off all the natives from the place, so that there was neither man, woman, or child remaining. Providence had thus singularly prepared the way for the colonies to take possession of the land, without molesting a single owner.

Samoset, having been treated with hospitality by these strangers, was disposed to cultivate a further acquaintance with them; and on his third visit was accompanied by Squanto, a native of the country, who had been carried away in 1614, by one Hunt, and sold into Spain, but had been taken to London, whence he had returned to America.

They informed the English that Masassoit, the greatest sachem of the neighbouring Indians was near with a guard of sixty men. Mutual distrust prevented for some time, any advances from either side. But Squanto, who was at length sent to Masassoit, returned, saying that the sachem wished the English to

send some one to confer with him. Mr. Edward Winslow was accordingly sent, bearing suitable presents to the chief. These proving acceptable, Masassoit left Mr. Winslow in the custody of his men as a hostage, and ventured to the English, by whom he was hospitably entertained, and with whom he concluded the treaty already noticed.

Section VII. In 1619, a governour general of the Virginia Colony arrived from England, with instructions to convoke a colonial legislature. To this assembly, eleven corporations, or towns, sent representatives, who sat with the governour and council, appointed by the Company. This was the first legislature to which the people of America sent representatives.

In 1621 the London Company established a constitution and form of government for the colony. The powers of this government were vested in a governour and two councils. One of these was called the council of state, to advise and assist the governour. This council was to be appointed and removed by the company. The other was called the general assembly, consisting of the council of state, and two burgesses, or representatives, deputed from each town, hundred, or plantation. This assembly met annually, and were entrusted with the business of framing laws for the colony, the governour having a negative upon their proceedings. No laws were valid until ratified by a court of the company in England.

In 1622, the Virginia Colony, which for some time had enjoyed great prosperity, and had received frequent accessions, experienced a stroke which nearly proved fatal. The successor of Powhatan, who was of a proud, revengeful spirit, and extremely hostile to the colony, concerted a plan to cut them off at a blow. On the 22d of March, it was so far put in execution, that three

hundred and forty-seven of the colony, men, women and children, were butchered almost in the same instant.

A war of extermination soon succeeded, which not long after was followed by a famine. The losses of the colony, however, which these calamities had brought upon them, were soon in a measure repaired, by the arrival of new adventurers.

Section VIII. While the Virginians were mourning their losses, the Plymouth colony began to experience the distresses of famine. By the time their planting was finished in 1623, their provisions were so far exhausted, that they had neither bread, nor corn for three or four months. A drought continued from May, until some time in July. Under these afflictions, however, they appointed a day of fasting and prayer, to humble themselves, and to seek unto God. Notwithstanding their many fears, a plentiful harvest followed, which was suitably noticed by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

Section IX. This year, 1623, a number of persons from England arrived in the river Piscataqua, and began two settlements; one at the mouth, at a place called Little Harbour, the other at a place now called Dover.—These were the first settlements in NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

Section X. In 1624, the London Company, which had settled Virginia, was dissolved by an act of king James I. under pretext of the calamities which had befallen the colony, and the dissensions which had agitated the company. Their charter was taken away, and the government of the colony assumed by the crown. The king himself appointed the governour, in

whom, with twelve counsellors, the powers of government were vested.

The London Company, thus dissolved, consisted of gentlemen of noble and disinterested views, who had expended more than one hundred thousand pounds of their fortunes, in this first attempt to plant an English colony in America; and more than nine thousand persons had been sent from the mother country to people this new settlement. At the time of the dissolution of the company scarcely two thousand persons survived.

Charles I. succeeding James I. in 1625, brought the Virginia Colony more immediately under the direction of the crown. Under this administration, the colony suffered much for many years, from the severe and arbitrary restraints imposed upon it by the king, through the governour and council.

Section XI. It has been stated, that the lands, upon which the Plymouth colony settled, were granted by the crown to "the Council of Plymouth," in England, in November, 1620. This was the same month that the Puritans had arrived in the country. Being apprized of this grant, the colony, in 1626, began to take measures to purchase these lands. The negotiations for this purpose ended the next year in a patent, which the company granted them for one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, with ample powers of government.

The government of the colony was at first formed and conducted according to a voluntary compact, entered into before landing. Till the year 1624, it consisted of a governour and one assistant only. From this period five were annually chosen, the governour having a double vote. The number of assistants was afterwards increased to seven.—The laws of the colony were enacted, and the affairs of government conducted, by these officers for near twenty years. In 1639, the towns in this colony, for the first time, sent deputies. The colony continued distinct near seventy years, until 1691, when, by charter of William and Mary, it was united to the colony of Massachusetts, and the Province of Maine.

Section XII. In 1628, the foundation was laid for another colony, in New-England, by the name of the colony of MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

The patent of this colony was granted by the Council of Plymouth, or New-England, to Sir Henry Roswell and others; and conveyed to them the territory lying between three miles north of the Merrimack, and three miles south of Charles River.

Sir Henry Roswell and his associates, however, soon sold the patent to Sir Richard Saltonstall, John Endicott, and others in England, who were projecting a settlement in New-England, for the purposes of greater religious freedom.

The same year, John Endicott was sent over, and began the settlement of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, at *Salem*, then called by the Indians, Naumkeak. As the patent granted to this colony conveyed no powers of government, King Charles, in 1629, granted these powers by charter. Six ships, furnished by the company, brought over four hundred persons, men, women and children, three hundred of whom settled at Salem, the remainder at Charlestown.

During the succeeding summer, 1630, John Winthrop, who had been appointed governour, and Thomas Dudley, deputy governour, with one thousand five hundred people, arrived at Charlestown; but owing to a mortal sickness, which soon after prevailed in that settlement, the governour and several of the planters removed to Shawmut, which they named Boston.

Governour Winthrop, and his associates, came over under an arrangement to transfer the government of this colony, from London to New-England, and to place it in the hands of officers to be elected by the freemen. This was carried into effect, and the freemen continued annually to elect their officers of government.

The colony soon experienced the distresses of mortal sickness and wasting famine. There was scarcely a family, in which there had not been a death before spring, and many of the people were obliged to subsist on clams, muscles, acorns, and nuts. Friday,

February 6, was appointed as a day of fasting; but the day before, a ship arriving laden with provisions, the governour, on the joyful occasion, appointed a day of thanksgiving throughout the plantations.

Section XIII. In 1632, Charles I. granted a patent to Lord Baltimore, conveying to him a tract of country on the Chesapeake Bay, which, in honour of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the great of France, he named MARYLAND.

The next year, 1633, Lord Baltimore appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governour of the province, who, with about two hundred planters, chiefly Roman Catholics, began a settlement in 1634, near the mouth of the Potomac, on the northern side.

Emigrants soon flocked to this province from England and the other colonies, on account of the greater religious freedom enjoyed in it.

By the patent, the proprietor, with the consent of the freemen, or their delegates, was authorized to make all necessary laws, not opposed to the laws of England; the king did not reserve a right to interfere in the government of the province. This was the original government of the colony of Maryland, which, however, afterwards underwent various modifications.

Section XIV. In 1633, the first house was erected in CONNECTICUT. This was a trading house at Windsor, the materials of which some Plymouth adventurers sent in a vessel up Connecticut river.

On their arrival in the river, they found some Dutch, from New Amsterdam, who had previously heard of the intended settlement at Windsor, occupying a fort, which they had erected, where Hartford now stands. On the approach of the Plymouth adventurers, the Dutch garrison ordered them to stop; but the commander gallantly disregarded the order, and proceeded to Windsor.

Two years from this, 1635, about sixty men,

women, and children, from Newtown and Watertown, in Massachusetts, commenced their journey through the wilderness to Connecticut river. They settled at Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford.

The same year, John Winthrop, son of the governour of Massachusetts, arrived from England, with a commission, as governour of Connecticut, under lord Say and Seal, and lord Brook, to whom the council of Plymouth had given, in March, 1631, a patent of the territory.

Soon after Winthrop's arrival at Boston, he despatched a bark of thirty tons with twenty men, to take possession of Connecticut river, and to build a fort at its mouth. This was accordingly erected, and called Saybrook fort. A few days after their arrival, a Dutch vessel, from New Netherlands, appeared, to take possession of the river; but, as the English had already mounted two cannon, their landing was prevented.

The next June, 1636, the Rev. Messrs. Hooker and Stone, with a number of settlers, from Dorchester and Watertown, removed to Connecticut. With no guide but a compass, they made their way, one hundred miles over mountains, through swamps and rivers. Their journey, which was on foot, lasted a fortnight, during which they lived upon the milk of their cows. They drove one hundred and sixty cattle.

Section XV. This year, 1636, Roger Williams, having been banished from the colony of Massachusetts in 1634, removed with his family to Mooshawsic and began a plantation, which he called *Providence*. From this we date the settlement of Rhode Island.

Williams was a minister of Salem; on account of heretical opinions, connected perhaps with errours of conduct, he was summoned in 1636, to appear before the General Court, and the ministers of the colony. Mr. Hooker was appointed to dispute with him; but, being unable to reduce him from his errours, he was sentenced by the court to depart out of the jurisdiction within six weeks. All the ministers but one approved the sentence.

In 1638, William Coddington, who has sometimes been called the father of Rhode Island, with eighteen others, removed from

Massachusetts, and having purchased of the Indians, the Island Aqutneck, began a settlement on the northern part of it. Others followed the next summer, and commenced another settlement on the south western side—dividing the Island into two townships, Portsmouth and Newport. They formed themselves into a body politick, and elected Mr. Coddington chief magistrate.

In 1640, the inhabitants of Providence agreed upon a form of government. Rhode Island, so called from a fancied resemblance to the ancient island of Rhodes, soon began to be extensively settled, both on account of its natural fertility, and also on account of the religious freedom allowed to all denominations.

In 1644, Roger Williams visited England, as agent of the settlers, and obtained of the earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company, a free charter of incorporation for Providence and Rhode Island Plantations.

In 1663, a royal charter was granted to them, by Charles II. This charter constituted an assembly, consisting of a governour, deputy governour, and ten assistants, with the representatives from the several towns, all to be chosen by the freemen.

Section XVI. The year 1637 is remarkable, in the history of Connecticut, for the war with the Pequots—a tribe of Indians, whose principal settlement was on a hill in the present town of Groton.

Prior to this time, the Pequots had frequently annoyed the infant colony, and in several instances had killed some of its inhabitants. In March of this year, the commander of Saybrook fort, with twelve men, was attacked by them, and three of his party killed. In April, another portion of this tribe assaulted the people of Wethersfield, as they were going to their fields to labour, and killed six men and three women. Two girls were taken captive by them, and twenty cows were killed.

In this perilous state of the colony, a court was summoned at Hartford, May 1. After mature deliberation, it was determined that war should be commenced against the Pequots.

Ninety men, nearly half the fencible men of the colony, were ordered to be raised—forty-two from Hartford—thirty from Windsor—and eighteen from Wethersfield.

On the assembling of this force at Hartford, the Rev. Mr. Hooker, previously to their marching, addressed them in the following manner.

"Fellow Soldiers, Countrymen, and Companions, you are this day assembled by the special Providence of God, you are

not collected by wild fancy, nor ferocious passions. It is not a tumultuous assembly, whose actions are abortive, or if successful produce only theft, rapine, rape, and murder; crimes inconsistent with nature's light, inconsistent with a soldier's valour. You, my dear hearts, were selected from your neighbours, by the godly fathers of the land, for your known courage, to execute such a work.

"Your cause is the cause of heaven; the enemy have blasphemed your God, and slain his servants; you are only the ministers of his justice. I do not pretend that your enemies are careless or indifferent: no, their hatred is inflamed, their lips thirst for blood; they would devour you, and all the people of God; but, my brave soldiers, their guilt has reached the clouds; they are ripe for destruction; their cruelty is notorious; and cruelty and cowardice are always united.

"There is nothing, therefore, to prevent your certain victory, but their nimble feet, their impenetrable swamps, and woods; from these your small numbers will entice them, or your courage drive them. I now put the question—Who would not fight in such a cause? fight with undaunted boldness? Do you wish for more encouragement? more I give you. Riches waken the soldier's sword; and though you will not obtain silver and gold, on the field of victory, you will secure what is infinitely more precious; you will secure the *liberties, the privileges, and the lives of Christ's Church, in this new world.*

"You will procure safety for your affectionate wives, safety for your prattling, harmless, smiling babes; you will secure all the blessings enjoyed by the people of God in the ordinances of the gospel. Distinguished was the honour conferred upon David, for fighting the battles of the Lord; this honour, O ye courageous soldiers of God, is now prepared for you. You will now execute his vengeance on the heathen; you will bind their kings in chains, and their nobles in fetters of iron. But perhaps some one may fear that a fatal arrow may deprive him of this honour.

"Let every faithful soldier of Jesus Christ be assured, that if any servant be taken away, it is merely because the honours of this world are too narrow for his reward; an everlasting crown is set upon his head; because the rewards of this life are insufficient. March then with Christian courage, in the strength of the Lord; march with faith in his divine promises, and soon your swords shall find your enemies; soon they shall fall like leaves of the forest under your feet."

With these troops, together with seventy river and Moheagan Indians, Capt. Mason, to whom the command of the expedition was given, dropped down the river Connecticut, to Saybrook.

Here a plan of operations was formed. On the twenty-sixth of May, about the dawn of day, capt. Mason surprised Mystic. one of the principal forts of the enemy, in the present town of Stonington. On their near approach to the fort, a dog barked, and an Indian who now discovered them, cried out, "O wanux! O wanux!" Englishmen, Englishmen.

The troops instantly pressed forward and fired. The destruction of the enemy soon became terrible, but they rallied at length, and made a manly resistance. After a severe and protracted conflict, capt. Mason and his troops being nearly exhausted, and victory still doubtful, he cried out to his men, *we must burn them!*

At the same instant, seizing a firebrand, he applied it to a wigwam. The flames spread rapidly, on every side; and as the sun rose upon the scene, it showed the work of destruction to be complete. Seventy wigwams were in ruins, and between five and six hundred Indians lay bleeding on the ground, or smouldering in the ashes.

But though the victory was complete, the troops were now in great distress. Besides two killed, sixteen of their number were wounded. Their surgeon, medicines, and provisions, were on board some vessels, on their way to Pequot harbour, now New-London. While consulting what should be done in this emergency, how great was their joy to descry their vessels standing directly towards the harbour, under a prosperous wind!

Soon after, a detachment of nearly two hundred men, from Massachusetts and Plymouth, arrived to assist Connecticut, in prosecuting the war.

Sassacus, the great Sachem of the Pequots, and his warriours, were so appalled at the destruction of Mystic, that they fled towards Hudson's river. The troops pursued them as far as a great swamp in Fairfield, where another action took place, in which the Indians were entirely vanquished.

This was followed by a treaty with the remaining Pequots, about two hundred in number, agreeably to which they were divided among the Narragansetts and Mohegans.

Thus terminated a conflict which for a time was eminently distressing to the colonies. This event of peace was celebrated throughout New-England, by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

Section XVII. The expedition against the Pequots made the English acquainted with Quinnapiak or *New-Haven*; and the next year, 1638, led to the settlement of that town. This, and

the adjoining towns, soon after settled, went by the name of the COLONY OF NEW-HAVEN.

Among the founders of this colony was Mr. John Davenport, a celebrated minister of London. Theophilus Eaton, who had been governour of the East India Company, and Edward Hopkins, a merchant of London. The unmolested enjoyment of civil and religious liberty was the object of their emigration, as it was of most of the emigrants to this country.

Having purchased the land of Monauguin, sachem of the country, whom they paid to his full satisfaction, on the 18th of April, they kept their first Sabbath in the place, under a large oak tree, where Mr. Davenport preached to them.

Section XVIII. The following year, January 14, 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, finding themselves without the limits of the Massachusetts patent, met, and formed themselves into a distinct commonwealth, and adopted a constitution.

This constitution, which has been much admired, and which for more than a century and a half underwent little alteration, ordained that there should annually be two general assemblies, one in April, the other in September. In April the officers of government were to be elected by the freemen, and to consist of governour, deputy governour, and five or six assistants. The towns were to send deputies to the general assemblies. Under this constitution, the first governour was John Haynes, and Roger Ludlow, the first deputy governour.

Section XIX. The example of the colony of Connecticut, in forming a constitution, was followed, the next June, by the colony of New-Haven. Both constitutions were essentially alike. Theophilus Eaton was the first governour of the colony.

Section XX. This same year, 1639, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained of the crown a charter of all the land from Piscataqua to Sagadahock, calling the territory the PROVINCE OF MAINE. He formed a system of government for the province, but it did not flourish. In 1651, or 1652, it was

taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, by request of the people of Maine.

The Plymouth colonists had obtained a patent for land lying on the Kennebeck river in 1628, and had erected a house there for trade. Scattered settlements were made in the territory some years afterward; but the history of their progress is obscure.

Section XXI. The next event of importance in our history is the union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven, by the name of THE UNITED COLONIES OF NEW-ENGLAND. The articles of this confederation, which had been agitated for three years, were signed May 19th, 1643.

To this union the colonies were strongly urged by a sense of common danger from the Indians, (a general combination of whom was expected,) and by the claims and encroachments of the Dutch, at Manhattan, New-York.

By these articles of union, each colony retained its distinct and separate government.—No two colonies might be united into one, nor any colony be received into the confederacy, without the consent of the whole. Each colony was to elect two Commissioners, who should meet annually, and at other times if necessary, and should determine "all affairs of war and peace, of leagues, aids, charges, and numbers of men for war," &c. Upon notice that any colony was invaded, the rest were immediately to despatch assistance.

This union subsisted more than forty years, until the charters of the colonies were either taken away, or suspended by James II. and his commissioners.

In 1648, Rhode-Island petitioned to be admitted to this confederacy, but was denied, unless she would be incorporated with Plymouth, and lose her separate existence.—This she refused, and was consequently excluded.

The effects of this union on the New-England colonies were in a high degree salutary. On the completion of it, several Indian Sachems, among whom were the chiefs of the Narraganset and Mohegan tribes, came in, and submitted to the English government. The colonies also became formidable, by means of it, to the Dutch. This union was also made subservient to the civil and religious improvement of the Indians.

Prior to this period, Mr. Mayhew and the devoted Elliot had made considerable progress towards civilizing the Indians, and converting them to Christianity. They had learned the Indian language, and had preached to the Indians in their own tongue.

Upon a report in England of what these men had done, a society was formed for propagating the Gospel among the Indians, which sent over books, money, &c. to be distributed by the Commissioners of the United Colonies.

The Indians at first made a great opposition to Christianity; and such was their aversion to it, that had they not been overawed by the United Colonies, it is probable they would have put to death those among them who embraced it.—Such, however, were the ardour, energy, and ability of Messrs. Mayhew and Elliot, aided by the countenance and support of government, and blessed by Providence, that in 1660, there were ten towns of converted Indians in Massachusetts. In 1695, there were not less than three thousand adult Indian converts, in the islands of Martha's Vineyard, and Nantucket.

Section XXII. 1662. The colony of Connecticut, having petitioned king Charles II. through governour Winthrop, for a charter of incorporation, his majesty granted their request, and issued his letters patent, April 2d, constituting them a body corporate and politick, by the name of *The Governour and Company of the English Colony of Connecticut in New-England in America.*

The territory granted to lord Say and Seal, and lord Brook, in 1631, and confirmed by this charter to Connecticut, was bounded east by Narraganset river; south by Long-Island sound; north by Massachusetts; and extended west to the Pacifick Ocean.

The charter of Connecticut ordained that there should be a governour, deputy governour, and twelve assistants to be chosen annually. The charter instituted two general assemblies for each year, to consist of the above officers and deputies from the towns: the former to compose the upper, and the deputies the lower house. The government under the charter was essentially the same with that which the people had themselves adopted, in 1639, and continued to be the constitution of the colony and State of Connecticut until the year 1818.

This charter included the colony of New-Haven; but not being agreeable to that colony, it did not unite with Connecticut until two years after. The granting of a charter to Connecticut

was followed the next year, 1663, by a similar grant to Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations, as already noticed.

Section XXIII. The settlement of the Dutch at Manhattan, in 1615, and their submission to the government of Virginia, which sent an expedition against them the same year, has already been mentioned. But the succeeding governour threw off the English yoke, and from that time they had remained independent of the English. —Belonging to a different nation, and having different interests, they availed themselves of every occasion to perplex and annoy the New-England colonies. They even laid claim to a considerable part of Connecticut.

At length, king Charles II. sensible of the evil consequences of having a Dutch colony in the heart of his American dominions, determined to dispossess them. Accordingly in the year 1664, he made a grant of the whole country, including in it the several colonies of New-York, New-Jersey, and Delaware, to his brother, the duke of York and Albany.

An expedition was soon fitted out against the Dutch, under command of Col. Richard Nichols, who shortly after appeared at Manhattan, and demanded a surrender. To this demand, the Dutch governour, Stuyvesant, yielded Aug. 27, being unprepared for defence.—Thus the whole country passed into the hands of the English. In honour of the duke, the two principal Dutch settlements were now named New-York and Albany.

Section XXIV. A short time previous to the surrender of the Dutch, the duke of York conveyed to lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret, the territory of New-Jersey. This name was

given it, in compliment to Carteret, who had been governour of the Isle of Jersey, in the English Channel. Soon after the grant, but before it was known, three persons from Long-Island purchased of the natives a tract which was called Elizabethtown grant, and a settlement was begun at Elizabethtown. In a few years, emigrants from various parts of Europe settled Newark, Middletown, and other places.

The first settlement in New-Jersey was made three or four years after the settlement of Plymouth in New-England, by some Dutchmen and Danes. The inhabitants were considerably numerous at the time of the surrender of the province to the English government.

The next year, 1665, Philip Carteret, who had been appointed governour by the proprietors, arrived at Elizabethtown, which he made the seat of government. He administered the government according to a constitution, which the proprietors had formed.

This constitution ordained a free assembly, consisting of a governour, council, and representatives, the latter to be chosen by each town. The legislative power resided in the assembly —the executive in the governour and council.

Section XXV. DELAWARE was also included in the grant to the duke of York. At this time it was in the hands of the Dutch, but an expedition was sent against it under Sir Robert Carr, to whom it surrended Oct. 1, 1664, soon after which, it was put under the authority of the English governour of New-York.

Delaware was first settled in 1627, by a number of Swedes and Fins, who at the instance of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, emigrated to America. They landed at Cape Henlopen, which, on account of its beauty, they called Paradise Point; the Delaware they named Swedeland Stream.

The Dutch at New Netherlands laid claim, however, to the territory, and mutual contests subsisted for a long time between them and the Swedes. After several times changing masters, the territory finally surrendered to the Dutch, who held posses

sion of it, at the time of the English expedition against it under Carr, in 1664.

Section XXVI. After the reduction of New-York, Col. Richard Nichols, Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuel Maverick, Esqrs. entered upon the duties of a commission from king Charles, "to hear and determine complaints and appeals, in all causes, as well military as criminal and civil," within New-England, and to proceed in all things for settling the peace and security of the country.

The conduct of these commissioners was exceedingly arbitrary and offensive to the colonies. Under pretext of executing their commission, they received complaints against the colonies from the Indians; required persons, against the consent of the people, to be admitted to the privileges of freemen; to church membership, and full communion; heard and decided in causes which had already been determined by the established courts; and gave protection to criminals. After involving the colonies in great embarrassment and expense, they were at length recalled, and the country saved from impending ruin.

Section XXVII. In the year 1663, the tract of country, extending from the 36th degree of north latitude to the river St. Matheo, was erected into a province by the name of CAROLINA, so called in honour of Charles IX. king of France, under whose patronage the coast had been discovered in 1563.

This tract was conveyed, by charter of Charles II. King of England, at this time, to Lord Clarendon, and seven others, who were made absolute proprietors of the territory, and invested with ample powers to settle and govern it. Two years after, the charter was confirmed and enlarged, so

as to embrace the whole territory, now divided into the two Carolinas, Georgia, and the Floridas.

As early as 1650, a settlement was begun in Albemarle county, by planters from Virginia, and emigrants from other places. This settlement was placed by the proprietors, under the superintendence of Sir William Berkley, governour of Virginia, who was instructed to visit it, and to appoint a governour and council of six for it.

The attention of the proprietors was next turned to the country south of Cape Fear, which they erected into a county by the name of Clarendon. This county was settled in 1665, by emigrants from the Island of Barbadoes. Sir John Yeamans, who was from that island, was appointed governour, and a separate government granted, similar to that of Albemarle.

In 1669, another settlement was made still further south, at Port Royal, under the direction of William Sayle, who was appointed the first governour. The name of this county was Carteret. Thus three distinct governments were formed in Carolina.

In 1671, Gov. Sayle, dissatisfied with the situation of Port Royal, removed to the northward, and took possession of a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper's river. Here was laid the foundation of a town called Charlestown. Nine years after, however, the inhabitants removed to "the Oyster Point," where Charleston, the present capital of South Carolina, was begun. The place which they left went by the name of "the Old Town."

In consequence of the unhealthiness of the climate, Governour Sayle died shortly after his removal to Old Charleston, upon which this colony was annexed to the government of that of Clarendon, under governour Yeamans, and the three governments were reduced to two.

During the administration of governour Sayle, a constitution, prepared, at the request of the proprietors, by the celebrated Mr. Locke, was attempted to be put in force.

By this constitution, a president of a palatine court, to consist of the proprietors, was to be chosen for life. An hereditary nobility was to be established, consisting of landgraves and caciques. A parliament, chosen once in two years, was to be held, consisting of the proprietors, of the nobility, and of representatives ftom each district. All were to meet in one apartment, and to have an equal voice. No business, however, could be proposed in parliament, until it had been debated in a grand

council, to consist of the governour, nobility, and deputies of proprietors.

This constitution it was found impossible to reduce to practice. Great opposition was made to it; and in Albemarle an insurrection was occasioned by an attempt to enforce it. It was therefore at length abandoned, and the former proprietary government restored. This latter sort of government continued from 1669 to 1729, when the proprietors surrendered their title and interest to the King of England. The province was now divided into North and South Carolina, and their governours and councils were appointed by the crown.

Section XXVIII. This year, 1675, began the memorable war in New-England, with the Indians, called *King Philip's war;* by which the peace of the colonies was greatly disturbed, and their existence for a time seriously endangered.

For several years previous to the opening of the war, the Indians had regarded the English with increasing jealousy. They saw them growing in numbers, and rapidly extending their settlements. At the same time their own hunting grounds were visibly narrowing, and their power and privileges sensibly decreasing. The prospect before them was humbling to the haughty descendants of the original lords of the soil.

The principal exciter of the Indians at this time against the English, was Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, grandson and successor of Masassoit, who, fifty years before, had made a treaty with the colony of Plymouth. Philip's residence was at Mount Hope, Bristol, Rhode-Island.

The immediate cause of the war was the execution of three Indians by the English, whom Philip had excited to murder one Sausaman, an Indian missionary. Sausaman, being friendly to the English, had informed them that Philip, with several tribes, was plotting their destruction.

The execution of these Indians roused the anger of Philip, who immediately armed his men, and commenced hostilities. Their first attack was made June 24th, upon the people of Swanzey, in Plymouth colony, as they were returning home from public worship, on a day of humiliation and prayer, under the apprehension of the approaching war. Eight or nine persons were killed.

The country was immediately alarmed, and the troops of the colony flew to the defence of Swanzey. On the 28th, a company of horse and a company of foot, with one hundred and ten volunteers from Boston, joined the Plymouth forces at Swanzey

The next morning an attack was made upon some of Philip's men, who were pursued, and five or six of them killed. This resolute conduct of the English made a deep impression on the enemy. Philip, with his forces left Mount Hope the same night —marking his route, however, with the burning of houses, and the scalping of the defenceless inhabitants.

It being known that the Narragansets favoured the cause of Philip, he having sent his women and children to them for protection, the Massachusetts forces under Capt. Hutchinson, proceeded forthwith into their country, either to renew a treaty with them, or to give them battle. Fortunately, a treaty was concluded, and the troops returned.

On the 17th of July, news arrived that Philip, with his warriours, was in a swamp at Pocasset, now Tiverton. The Massachusetts and Plymouth forces immediately marched to that place, and the next day resolutely charged the enemy in their recesses. As the troops entered the swamp, the Indians continued to retire. The English in vain pursued, till the approach of night, when the commander ordered a retreat. Many of the English were killed, and the enemy seemed to take courage.

It being impossible to encounter the Indians with advantage in the swamps, it was determined to starve them out; but Philip, apprehending their design, contrived to escape with his forces.

He now fled to the Nipmucks, a tribe in Worcester county, Massachusetts, whom he induced to assist him. This tribe had already commenced hostilities against the English; but, in the hope of reclaiming them, the governour and council sent Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson to treat with them. But the Indians, having intimation of their coming, lurked in ambush for them, fired upon them as they approached, killed eight men, and mortally wounded eight more, of whom Capt. Hutchinson was one.

The remainder of the English fled to Quaboag, Brookfield. The Indians, however, closely pursued them into the town, and burnt every house excepting one, in which the inhabitants had taken refuge. This house at length they surrounded. "For two days they continued to pour a storm of musket balls upon it, and although countless numbers pierced through the walls, but one person was killed. With long poles, they next thrust against it brands, and rags dipped in brimstone; they shot arrows of fire; they loaded a cart with flax and tow, and with long poles fastened together. they pushed it against the house. Destruction seemed inevitable. The house was kindling, and the savages stood ready to destroy the first that should open the door to escape. At this awful moment a torrent of rain descend ed, and suddenly extinguished the kindling flames."

August 4th, Major Willard came to their relief, raised the siege, and destroyed a considerable number of the assailants.

During the month of September, Hadley, Deerfield, and Northfield, on Connecticut river, were attacked; several of the inhabitants were killed, and many buildings consumed. On the 18th, Captain Lathrop, with several teams and eighty young men, the flower of the county of Essex, were sent to Deerfield to transport a quantity of grain to Hadley. On their return, stopping to gather grapes at Muddy Brook, they were suddenly attacked by near eight hundred Indians. Resistance was in vain, and seventy of these young men fell before the merciless enemy, and were buried in one grave. Captain Mosely who was at Deerfield, hearing the report of the guns, hastened to the spot, and with a few men, attacked the Indians, killed ninety-six, and wounded forty, losing himself but two men.

Early in October, the Springfield Indians, who had hitherto been friendly to the English, concerted a plan, with the hostile tribes, to burn that town. Having, under cover of night, received two or three hundred of Philip's men into their fort, with the assistance of these, they set fire to the town. The plot, however, was discovered so seasonably, that troops arrived from Westfield, in time to save the town, excepting thirty-two houses, already consumed.

Soon after hostilities were commenced by Philip, the Tarrenteens began their depredations in New-Hampshire, and the Province of Maine. They robbed the boats and plundered the houses of the English. In September they fell on Saco, Scarborough, and Kittery, killed between twenty and thirty of the inhabitants, and consigned their houses, barns, and mills, to the flames.

Elated with these successes, they next advanced towards Piscataqua, committing the same outrages at Oyster river, Salmon Falls, Dover and Exeter. Before winter, sixty of the English, in that quarter, were killed, and nearly as many buildings consumed.

The Indians in those parts, however, had real ground of complaint. Some seamen, hearing it reported that Indian children could swim by instinct, overset the canoe of Squando, sachem of the Saco Indians, in which were his squaw and infant child. This act Squando could not overlook, especially as some time after the child died, and, as the sachem believed, on account of some injury that it then received. Besides this, several Indians had been enticed on board a vessel, carried off, and sold into slavery. To redress these wrongs, the Indians commenced hostilities.

Notwithstanding the Narragansets had pledged themselves by

their treaty, not to engage in the war against the English, it was discovered that they were taking part with the enemy. It was deemed necessary, therefore, for the safety of the colonies, early to check that powerful tribe.

Accordingly, governour Winslow of Plymouth, with about one thousand eight hundred troops from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and one hundred and sixty friendly Indians, commenced their march from Pettyquamscot, on the 19th of December, 1675, through a deep snow, towards the enemy, who were in a swamp about fifteen miles distant.

The army arrived at the swamp at one in the afternoon. Some Indians at the edge of the swamp were fired upon, but fled. The whole army now entered and pursued the Indians to their fortress.

This stood on a rising ground, in the middle of the swamp. It was a work of great strength and labour, being composed of palisades, and surrounded by a hedge about sixteen feet in thickness.

One entrance only led to the fort, through the surrounding thicket. Upon this the English providentially fell; and without waiting to form, rushed impetuously towards the fort. The English captains entered first. The resistance of the Indians was gallant and warlike. Captains Johnson and Davenport, with many of their men, fell at the entrance. At length the English gave back, and were obliged to retreat out of the fort.

At this crisis, the army being on the point of a fatal repulse, some Connecticut men, on the opposite side of the fort, discovered a place destitute of palisades; they instantly sprang into the fort, fell upon the rear of the Indians, and, aided by the rest of the army, after a desperate conflict, achieved a complete victory. Six hundred wigwams were now set on fire. The scene was awful. Deep volumes of smoke rolled up to heaven, mingling with the dying shrieks of mothers and infants, while the aged and infirm were consuming in the flames.

Even at this distant period, we cannot recall this scene without pain, and can justify this severity of our ancestors, only by admitting its necessity for self-preservation.

The Indians in the fort were estimated at four thousand; of these seven hundred warriours were killed, and three hundred died of their wounds; three hundred were taken prisoners, and as many women and children. The rest, except such as were consumed, fled.

The victory of the English, complete as it was, was purchased with blood. Six brave captains fell; eighty of the troops were killed or mortally wounded; and one hundred and fifty were wounded, who recovered.

From this defeat, the Indians never recovered. They were not yet, however, effectually subdued. During the winter they still continued to murder and burn. The towns of Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, Springfield, Northampton, Sudbury, and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, and of Warwick and Providence, in Rhode-Island, were assaulted, and some of them partly, and others wholly destroyed. In March, Captain Pierce, with fifty English, and twenty friendly Indians, were attacked, and every Englishman, and most of the Indians, were slain. In April, Captain Wadsworth, marching with fifty men to the relief of Sudbury, was surrounded, and all either killed on the spot, or reserved for long and distressing tortures.

The success of the Indians, during the winter, had been great; but on the return of spring the tide turned against them. The Narraganset country was scoured, and many of the natives were killed, among whom was Canonchet, their chief sachem.

On the 12th of August, 1676, the finishing stroke was given to the war in the United colonies, by the death of Philip. After his flight from Mount Hope, he had attempted to rouse the Mohawks against the English. To effect his purpose, he killed, at several times, some of that tribe, and laid it to the English. But his iniquity was discovered, and he was obliged hastily to flee. He returned at length to Mount Hope.

Tidings of his return were brought to Captain Church, a man who had been of eminent service in this war, and who was better able than any other person to provide against the wiles of the enemy. Capt. Church immediately proceeded to the place of Philip's concealment, near Mount Hope, accompanied by a small body of men. On his arrival, which was in the night, he placed his men in ambushes round the swamp, charging them not to move till daylight, that they might distinguish Philip, should he attempt to escape. Such was his confidence of success, that taking Major Sandford by the hand, he said, "It is scarcely possible that Philip should escape." At that instant, a bullet whistled over their heads, and a volley followed.

The firing proceeded from Philip, and his men, who were in view. Perceiving his peril, the savage chief, desperately snatched his powder horn and gun, and ran fiercely towards the spot where an Englishman and Indian lay concealed.—The English soldier levelled his gun, but it missed fire: the Indian fired, and shot Philip through the heart.

Captain Church ordered him to be beheaded, and quartered. The Indian who executed this order, pronounced the warriour's epitaph, "You have been one very great man. You have made many a man afraid of you. But so big as you be, I will now chop you to pieces."

Thus fell a savage hero and patriot—of whose transcendant abilities our history furnishes melancholy evidence.—The advantage of civilized education, and a wider theatre of action, might have made the name of Philip of Mount Hope, as memorable as that of Alexander, or Cæsar.

After the death of Philip, the war continued in the province of Maine, till the spring of 1678. But westward, the Indians having lost their chiefs, wigwams, and provisions, and perceiving further contest vain, came in singly, by tens, and hundreds, and submitted to the English.

Thus closed a melancholy period in the annals of New-England history; during which, six hundred men, the flower of her strength, had fallen; twelve or thirteen towns had been destroyed, and six hundred dwelling houses consumed. Every eleventh family was houseless, and every eleventh soldier had sunk to his grave. So costly was the inheritance which our fathers have transmitted to us.

Section XXIX. The grant of the territory of New-York, by Charles II. to his brother the duke of York, in 1664, has already been noticed, as also its capture from the Dutch, the same year. In 1673, a war commencing between England and Holland, the latter sent a small fleet to New-York, and the town immediately surrendered.

The following year, 1674, the war terminated, and a treaty was concluded between England and Holland. By this treaty New-York was restored to the English. To prevent controversy about his title to the territory, the Duke of York took out a new patent, and appointed Sir Edmund Andross governour, who entered upon the duties of his appointment, in October of the same year.

The administration of Andross, however, was arbitrary and severe. He admitted the people to no share in legislation, but ruled them by laws, to which they had never given their assent.

Connecticut also experienced the weight of his oppression and despotism. That part of her territory west of Connecticut river, although long before granted to the colony of Connecticut,

was included in the grant to the duke of York. By virtue of this grant, Andross now claimed jurisdiction over the territory, and in July 1675, made an attempt with an armed force, to take possession of Saybrook Fort.

The governour and council of Connecticut, having notice of his coming, sent Capt. Bull to defend the fort. On the arrival of Andross at the mouth of the river, after making a show of force, he invited Capt. Bull to a conference. This was granted; but no sooner had he landed, than he attempted to read his commission, and the duke's patent. This Capt. Bull firmly and positively forbid, and Sir Edmund, finding the colony determined, at all events, not to submit to his government, relinquished his design and sailed for Long-Island.

Section XXX. But the colonies had other troubles to experience, and other enemies to combat. In 1676, while the Indian war was still going on, complaints were made in England against the colonies, for violating the acts of trade. These acts imposed oppressive customs upon certain commodities, if imported from any country besides England, or if transported from one colony to another. The acts were considered by the colonies as unjust, impolitick, and cruel. For several years they paid little attention to them, and his majesty at length required, that agents should be sent to England to answer in behalf of the colonies for these violations.

By the acts of trade none of the colonies suffered more than Virginia and Maryland, their operation being greatly to lessen the profits on their tobacco trade, from which a great portion of their wealth was derived. In addition to these sufferings, the colony of Virginia, in violation of chartered rights, was divided, and conveyed away in proprietary grants. Not only uncultivated woodlands were thus conveyed, but also plantations, which had long been possessed, and improved according to law and charter.

The Virginians complained, petitioned, remon

strated—but without effect. Agents were sent to England, to lay their grievances at the foot of the throne, but agents were unsuccessful. At length their oppression became insupportable, and the discontent of the people broke out into open insurrection.

At the head of this insurrection was placed one Nathaniel Bacon, an Englishman, who soon after his arrival, had been appointed a member of the council. He was a young man of commanding person, and great energy and enterprise.

The colony at this time was engaged in war with the Susquehannah Indians. Bacon despatched a messenger to governour Berkley, requesting a commission to go against the Indians. This commission the governour refused, and, at the same time, ordered Bacon to dismiss his men, and on penalty of being declared a rebel, to appear before himself and the council. Exasperated by such treatment, Bacon, without disbanding the rest of his men, proceeded in a sloop with forty of them, to Jamestown. Here a quarrel ensued, and Berkley illegally suspended him from the council. Bacon departed in a rage, with his sloop and men, but the governour pursued him, and adopted such measures that he was taken, and brought to Jamestown.

Finding that he had dismissed Bacon from the council illegally, he now admitted him again, and treated him kindly. Soon after, Bacon renewed his importunity for a commission against the Indians. Being unable to effect his purpose he left Jamestown privately, but soon appeared again with six hundred volunteers, and demanded of the assembly, then sitting, the required commission. Being overawed, the assembly advised the governour to grant it. But soon after Bacon had departed, the governour, by the same advice, issued a proclamation, denouncing him as a rebel.

Hearing what the governour had done, Bacon, instead of marching against the Indians, returned to Jamestown, wreaking his vengeance upon all who opposed him. Governour Berkley fled across the bay to Accomack, but the spirit of rebellion had gone before him. He therefore found himself unable to resist Bacon, who now ranged the country at pleasure.

At length the governour, with a small force, under command of major Robert Beverly, crossed the bay to oppose the malecontents. Civil war had now commenced. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers; various parts of the colony were pillaged, and the wives of those that adhered to the governour's party were carried to the camp of the insurgents.

In the midst of these commotions, it pleased the Supreme Ruler to withdraw Bacon by a natural death. The malecontents, thus left to recover their reason, now began to disperse. Two of Bacon's generals surrendered, and were pardoned, and the people quietly returned to their homes.

Upon this Berkley resumed the government, and peace was restored. This rebellion formed an era of some note in the history of Virginia, and its unhappy effects were felt for thirty years During its continuance, husbandry was almost entirely neglected, and such havock was made among all kinds of cattle, that the people were threatened with distressing famine. Sir William Berkley, after having been forty years governour of Virginia returned to England, where he soon after died.

Three years after, 1679, lord Culpepper was sent over as governour, with certain laws prepared in conformity to the wishes of the ministry of England, and designed to be enacted by the assembly in Virginia. One of those laws provided for raising a revenue for the support of government. It made the duties perpetual, and placed them under the direction of his majesty. Out of the duties, Culpepper dishonestly took as his salary, two thousand pounds, and one hundred and sixty more for house rent.

On presenting these laws to the assembly, Culpepper informed them that in case they were passed, he had instructions to offer pardon to all who had been concerned in Bacon's rebellion; but if not he had commissions to try and hang them as rebels, and a regiment of soldiers on the spot to support him. The assembly, thus threatened, passed the laws.

Section XXXI. In the year 1676, the province of New-Jersey was divided into East and West Jersey, and continued thus divided until 1702, when the proprietors surrendered the government to the crown under Queen Anne, upon which the two provinces were united into one.

The two proprietors of New-Jersey were Lord Berkley, and Sir George Cartaret. In 1674, lord Berkley made a conveyance of his half to John Fenwick, in trust for Edward Billinge, and his assigns. Billinge, being in debt, presented his interest in the province to his creditors, William Jones and others, being appointed trustees to dispose of the lands.

In the division which thus took place, Cartaret took East Jersey, the government of which he retained, and the trustees of Billinge, West Jersey. The duke of York, though he had conveyed away his powers of government, when he sold the pro-

nce to Berkley and Cartaret, in 1664, unjustly claimed West ersey, as a dependency of New-York.

Until 1680, this dependency was maintained, when the duke York, after much solicitation, relinquished his claim, and re- ored to the proprietors, the right granted by his patent of 1664.

1682, Cartaret, disgusted with the people, sold his right to ast Jersey, to William Penn, and others, who immediately ld one half of it to the earl of Perth, and his associates. Ro- rt Barclay, the celebrated author of "the Apology for the Qua- ers," was the next year made governour of East Jersey.

In 1686, both the Jerseys and New-York, were annexed to ew-England, and continued so till the accession of William d Mary to the throne of England, in 1689. "A government der the proprietors of both the Jerseys, had become extremely sagreeable to the inhabitants: who from various causes, be- me so uneasy, that the proprietors surrendered the government East and West Jersey to the crown in 1702, which Queen nne very readily accepted."

"The two provinces were now united into one, and lord ornbury was appointed governour over the united colony, and ceived his commission and instructions from the queen.

"The freemen chose the house of representatives, consisting twenty-four members, but the governour and council, consist- g of twelve members, were appointed by the crown. New- ork and New-Jersey had, till the year 1738, a common govern- r; but at this time a separate governour was appointed over e latter province."

Section XXXII. In 1677, a controversy which ad subsisted for some time between the colony f Massachusetts and the heirs of Sir Ferdinando orges, relative to the province of Maine, was as settled in England, and the colony adjudged o Gorges' heirs. Upon this, Massachusetts pur- hased the title for one thousand two hundred ounds sterling; and the territory from that time ll 1820, was a part of Massachusetts.

Both the colony of Massachusetts, and the heirs of Gorges, aimed the province of Maine: the former by virtue of her atent of 1628, which was construed as including that territory e claim of the latter was founded upon a charter granted to orges, in 1639.

Section XXXIII. Two years after this adjust- ent; viz. in 1679, a commission was made out,

by order of Charles II. for the separation of New-Hampshire from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and its erection into a royal province. The form of government sent over by the king, ordained a president and council to govern the province, with an assembly, &c. The assembly to be chosen by the people; the president and council to be appointed by the crown.

In 1629, the Plymouth company granted to John Mason the territory called New Hampshire. About the year 1640, the settlements now being considerable, the patent holders agreed to assign their right of jurisdiction to Massachusetts. The colony of New-Hampshire, therefore, remained under the government of Massachusetts, until it was separated by the king's commission, in 1679.

The first legislative assembly, under the above commission was convened March 16, 1680, when the colony of New-Hampshire was declared to be independent of Massachusetts. This separation, however, was disagreeable to most of the people; for near forty years they had enjoyed under Massachusetts the privilege of choosing their own rulers, and had derived great peace and harmony from an impartial government. Nor did this province long enjoy tranquillity. Mason, grandson of the Mason to whom New-Hampshire had been originally granted, came over the next year, and demanded, by virtue of his claims to the soil, a seat in the council. This being granted, he soon after returned to England, and surrendered a part of his claims to the king, and mortgaged the remainder to Edward Cranfield, who was appointed lieutenant governour, and shortly after repaired to New-Hampshire.

It is necessary to add, that the Rev. Mr. Wheelright and others, in 1629, the same year that the grant was made to *Mason* by the Plymouth company, bought of the Indians a large tract of land in New-Hampshire. The same land was, therefore, claimed under both these grants, and the foundation thus laid of serious disputes in the colony.

Cranfield, finding it for his interest to favour the claim of Mason to the province, soon called upon the inhabitants to take their leases under him. Suits were instituted against all the landholders who neglected this call, and the jurors being selected by Cranfield, and interested in the result, uniformly gave judgment against them.

Under these oppressions, the people despatched an agent, with complaints to his majesty, against the governour. After

hearing by the lords of trade, the iniquitous conduct of Cranfield was represented to the king, who recalled him.

It may be proper to add, that the above controversy about the claims of Mason continued long to disturb the peace of the province, and was not finally terminated until the death of Samuel Allen, in 1715, to whom the heirs of Mason had sold their claim for seven hundred and fifty pounds; upon his decease, no one appeared to renew the claims, and the question dropped.

Section XXXIV. In 1681, King Charles II. granted to William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, in consideration of debts due the latter, for services done to the crown, the territory of PENNSYLVANIA, so called after Penn himself.

This patent encroached on the territory of Lord Baltimore in Maryland, one whole degree, or sixty-nine miles and a half; and on the north, nearly three hundred miles, across the whole territory conveyed to Connecticut in 1631,* and confirmed by the royal charter of 1662. Hence arose contentions between the colonies of Pennsylvania and Connecticut, about boundaries, that were not settled till a century after. Within a short time from the date of the grant by king Charles to Penn, two other conveyances were made to him by the duke of York. One was a bill of sale of New-Castle, and a territory of twelve miles round it. The other was a bill granting a tract south of the former, as far as Cape Henlopen. These two deeds embraced the whole state of Delaware. At this time, Delaware was divided into three counties, which, in 1662, were annexed to Pennsylvania, although they had a separate assembly, in which the governour of Pennsylvania presided.

The patent of king Charles to Penn provided for the king's sovereignty, and for obedience to British acts, regarding commerce. It gave power to the proprietor to assemble the freemen, or their delegates, as he should judge most convenient; for levying moneys and enacting laws, not contrary to the laws of England.

In May, 1681, Penn sent one Markham, with a few others, to take possession, and prepare for a settlement. The next year, Penn published a form of government, by which the supreme power was lodged in a general assembly, to consist of a govern-

* See page 34, where the boundaries of the territory granted to Connecticut are given.

our, council, and house of delegates. The council and house to be chosen by the freemen. The proprietor and governour to preside, and to have a treble voice in the council, which was to consist of seventy-two members.

It was also agreed, that every person of good moral character, professing his faith in Christ, should be a freeman, and capable of holding any office; and that none who believed in one God, should be molested in his religion, or be compelled to attend, or maintain religious worship.

In October, Penn, with two thousand planters, mostly Quakers, arrived at New-Castle. In December, he convoked an assembly; but so few delegates appearing, he ordered, that instead of seventy-two, three members only should constitute the council, and nine the house of assembly.

Penn now entered into a treaty with the Indians, of whom he purchased large tracts of territory; at the same time, he commenced the city of Philadelphia, which, in one year, increased to a hundred houses and cottages.

Pennsylvania had a more rapid and prosperous settlement than any of the other colonies. This was doubtless owing partly to its healthful climate and fruitful soil, partly to the fact that the great obstacles of settlement had been overcome by the other colonies, and partly to the religious tolerance, mildness and equity, which characterized its laws, and their administration.

In 1683, Penn, at the request of the freemen, granted them a new charter, by which eighteen persons were to form the council, and thirty-six the assembly. The next year, Penn himself returned to England.

The lasting prosperity of Pennsylvania, the foundation of which must be traced to his wisdom and benevolence, is an eloquent eulogium upon his character.

Section XXXV. In the year 1684, June 18, an event highly interesting to the colony of Massachusetts took place in England. This was a decision in the high court of chancery, that she had forfeited her charter, and that henceforth her government should be placed in the hands of the king.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing about this event was Edmund Randolph, a man who had long been the enemy of the colonies, and who, for several years, had filled the ears of the king with complaints against them for violating the acts of trade.

To answer to these complaints, Massachusetts repeatedly incurred the expense of sending agents to England, and of maintaining them there; but his majesty would accept of no conditions, short of a surrender of her charter. As she would not make this surrender voluntarily, it was violently wrested from her.

Before king Charles had time to adjust the affairs of the colony he died, and was succeeded by James II. Soon after his accession, similar proceedings took place against the other colonies Rhode-Island submitted, and gave up her charter. Plymouth sent a copy of her charter to the king, with a humble petition that he would restore it. Connecticut voted an address to his majesty, in which she prayed him to recall the writ that had been filed against her, and requested the continuance of her charter.

The petitions and remonstrances of the colonies were, however, of no avail. Both the heart and hand of the king were manifestly against them. After all their hardships and dangers in settling a wilderness, they had no other prospect before them than the destruction of their dearest rights, and no better security of life, liberty, and property. than the capricious will of a tyrant.

In pursuance of this cruel policy towards the colonies, two years after the charter of Massachusetts was vacated, king James commissioned and sent out Sir Edmund Andross as governour of all New-England, Plymouth excepted. He arrived at Boston, Dec. 20, 1686.

The commencement of his administration was comparatively auspicious. In a few months, however, the fair prospect was changed. Among other arbitrary acts, restraints were laid upon the freedom of the press, and marriage contracts. The liberty to worship in the congregational

way was threatened, and the fees of all officers of government were exorbitantly and oppressively enhanced.

In October, Sir Edmund, and suite, with a guard of about sixty regular troops, went to Hartford, where the assembly of Connecticut was in session. He entered the house of the assembly, demanded the charter of Connecticut, and declared the colonial government to be dissolved.

Extremely reluctant to surrender the charter, the assembly intentionally protracted its debates till evening, when the charter was brought in, and laid on the table.—Upon a preconcerted signal, the lights were at once extinguished, and a Capt. Wadsworth, seizing the charter, hastened away under cover of night, and secreted it in the hollow of an oak. The candles, which had been extinguished, were soon relighted without disorder; but the charter had disappeared. Sir Edmund, however, assumed the government, and the records of the colony were closed.

The condition of the New-England colonies was now distressing, and as the administration of Andross was becoming still more severe and oppressive, the future seemed not to promise alleviation. But Providence was invisibly preparing the way for their relief. Nov. 5th, 1688, William, Prince of Orange, who married Mary, daughter of James II. landed at Torbay, in England, and, compelling James II. to leave the kingdom, assumed the crown, being proclaimed Feb. 16th, 1689, to the general joy of the nation

Notes.

Section XXXVI. **Manners of the Colonists.** In the colonies of North America, at the close of this period, three varieties of character might be distinguished. *In New-England*, the strict puritanical notions of the people wrought a correspondent austerity upon the manners of society. Placing implicit faith in the Scriptures, they moulded their government, and shaped private character and morals upon a severe and literal construction of them. They were devout —patriotic—industrious—and public spirited; and though of a grave, reflecting exterior, they often showed that shrewd inquisitiveness and keen relish of a jest, which are still characteristic of the New-Englanders.

The laws of the colonies throw some light on the views and manners of the people. As examples, in 1639, the drinking of healths was prohibited by law in Massachusetts. In 1651, the legislature of that colony prohibited all persons whose "estate did not exceed two hundred pounds, from wearing any gold or silver lace, or any bone lace above two shillings per yard." The law authorized the selectmen to take notice of the costliness and fashion of the "apparel of the people, especially in the wearing of ribands and great boots." The New-Haven colony, in 1639, resolved that they would be governed by the rules of Scripture; and that church members only should act in the civil affairs of the Plantation.

In 1647, the colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, by an act of assembly, in which it was ordered, "that no person under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to the use thereof, shall take any tobacco, until he shall have brought a certificate from under the hand of some who are approved for knowledge and skill in physic, that it is useful for him; and also that he hath received a license from the court for the same. All others, who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco, were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in com-

pany, on pain of a fine of sixpence for each time; to be proved by one substantial witness. The constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainsaying."

In the *Colony of New-York*, during this period, the manners of the colonists were strictly Dutch—with no other modifications than the privations of a new country, and the few English among them, necessarily effected. The same steadfast pursuit of wealth; the same plodding industry; the same dress, air, and physiognomy, which are given as characteristic of Holland, were equally characteristic of the inhabitants of New-Amsterdam.

In *Virginia*, the manners of the colonists were those of the less rigid English, rendered still more free and voluptuous by the influence of a softer climate and a more prolific soil.

Stith says of the first settlers of this colony, that some emigrated "to escape a worse fate at home;" others, it is said, sought to repair fortunes by emigration, which had been ruined by excess. Many persons, however, of high character, were among the emigrants, and amidst the licentiousness of the Virginian colony were found, at the close of this period, the seeds of that frankness, hospitality, taste, and refinement, which distinguish the people of the South at this day.

Other national peculiarities might be noticed, as those of the Fins in Delaware, those of the Quakers in Pennsylvania, &c.; but at this period they were too limited to require a distinct notice in our work.

Section XXXVII. **Religion:** The colony of Virginia, from its earliest existence, was exclusively devoted to the Church of England.

For several years, its unsettled state prevented that attention to a religious establishment, which afterwards the subject received. At the expiration of thirteen years from the founding of the colony, there were but eleven parishes, and five ministers; the inhabitants of the colony did not at this time, however, much exceed two thousand persons.

In 1621, the colony received a large accession to its numbers, and the governour and council were instructed "to take into special regard the service of Almighty God, and the observance of his divine laws; and that the people should be trained up in true religion and virtue." At the same time, the Virginia Company ordered a hundred acres of land, in each of the boroughs, to be laid off for a glebe, and two hundred pounds ster-

ing to be raised, as a standing and certain revenue out of the profits of each parish, to make a living: this stipend was thus settled—that the minister shall receive yearly five hundred pounds of tobacco, and sixteen barrels of corn; which were collectively estimated at two hundred pounds sterling. In 1642, the assembly passed a law prohibiting all, but those who had been ordained by English bishops, from preaching.

In 1650, during the time of governour Berkley, the parishes of the colony were further regulated, the religion of the church of England was confirmed and established, and provision made for the support of the ministers. The maintenance of a minister was put at sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco, which as valued, at that time, at ten shillings per hundred, was about eighty pounds sterling. But in addition to this, he had a dwelling house and glebe; also four hundred pounds of tobacco, or forty shillings for a funeral sermon, and two hundred pounds of tobacco, or twenty shillings for performing marriage by license, or five shillings when the banns were proclaimed. The tobacco designed for the minister was brought to him, well packed in hogsheads, prepared for shipping. To raise this crop, twelve negroes were necessary.

The special object of the New-England planters, in settling the country, was the enjoyment of their religious opinions, and the free exercise of religious worship, without molestation. Early attention was, therefore, paid to the gathering of churches, and the regulation of religion. They were Calvinists in doctrine, and Congregational in discipline.

Each church maintained its right to govern itself. They held to the validity of Presbyterian ordination, and the expediency of synods on great occasions. From the commencement, they used ecclesiastical councils, convoked by particular churches for advice, but not for the judicial determination of controversies.

In each of the churches there was a pastor, teacher, ruling elder, and deacons. The pastor's office consisted principally in exhortation; upon the teacher devolved the business of explaining and defending the doctrines of christianity. The business of the ruling elder was to assist the pastor in the government of the church.

Early provision was made for the support of the ministry. On the arrival of the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, at Charlestown, before landing, a court of assistants was held, and the first question proposed was, How shall the ministers be maintained? The court ordered that houses be built, and salaries be raised for them at the public charge. Their two ministers, Mr. Philips, and Mr. Wilson, were granted a salary—The former thirty

pounds per annum, and the latter twenty pounds, until the arrival of his wife.

After the settlement of the several colonies, all persons were obliged by law to contribute to the support of the church. Special care was taken that all persons should attend public worship. In Connecticut the law obliged them to be present on the Lord's day—on all days of public fasting, and thanksgiving, appointed by civil authority, on penalty of five shillings, for every instance of neglect.

By the year 1642, twenty-two years from the landing of the pilgrims at Plymouth, there had been settled in New-England, seventy-seven ministers, who were driven from the parent country, fifty towns and villages had been planted, and thirty or forty churches gathered.

In 1637, the first synod convened in America, sat at Newtown, Massachusetts, and was composed of all the teaching elders in the country, and messengers of the several churches. Magistrates also were present, and spoke as they thought fit. The object of calling this synod was to inquire into the opinions of one Ann Hutchinson, a very extraordinary woman, who held public lectures in Boston, and taught doctrines considered heretical. The whole colony was agitated and divided into parties. The synod, after a session of three weeks, condemned eighty-two erroneous opinions which had become disseminated in New England.

The *Dutch Reformed Church* was introduced into New-York with the first settlers, and was generally embraced by the Dutch population of that colony.

The *Roman Catholics* first came to America in 1632; they settled in Maryland, and now constitute a respectable and numerous portion of the inhabitants of that state.

The first *Baptist* church in America was formed at Providence in 1639. Their sentiments spreading into Massachusetts, in 1651, the general court passed a law against them, inflicting banishment for persisting in the promulgation of their doctrines.

In 1656, the *Quakers* making their appearance

n Massachusetts, the legislature of that colony assed severe laws against them.

No master of a vessel was allowed to bring any one of this ect into its jurisdiction, on penalty of one hundred pounds. ther still severer penalties were inflicted upon them in 1657, uch as cutting their ears, and boring their tongues with a hot on, &c. They were at length banished on pain of death, and ur, refusing to go, were executed in 1659.

Without intending to justify these severities toward the Bapsts, Quakers, and other sectaries, it is still proper to state, as me apology for them, that the conduct of the leaders of these ects was often calculated, and no doubt designed, to provoke ersecution. They sought improper occasions to inculcate their eculiar tenets—departed unnecessarily from the decencies of ocial intercourse, and rudely inveighed against established and herished opinions. In this way the peace of the colonies was isturbed, and that unanimity of religious sentiment which had itherto existed, was broken. Our forefathers sought to avert ese evils by the arm of civil power; not yet having learnt that ersecution is a ready way to propagate the sentiments of the ersecuted.

In the year 1646, a synod met at Cambridge, which, by adurnment, protracted its session to 1648, when it dissolved. his synod composed and adopted the "Cambridge Platform," nd recommended it, together with the Westminster Confession f Faith, to the General Court and to the churches. In this syod were present the ministers and churches of Connecticut, nd New-Haven, who united in the form of discipline which it ecommended. This, in connexion with the ecclesiastical laws, as the religious constitution of Connecticut, until the compilaon of the Saybrook Platform, a period of about sixty years.

Section XXXVIII. **Trade and Commerce.** The colonies, during this period, had ttle other trade than with England, though the Vest-India trade had begun, and there was some ommerce with Canada, and a few ports on the uropean continent. The colonies imported om England all their merchandise; and exorted thither tobacco, peltry, and at length some eef, pork, grain, and fish. The importations om England, however, much exceeded the exorts thither

During the first thirty years of the colony of Virginia, their exports were confined to tobacco. But the price of it fell at length from three shillings and sixpence per pound, to twenty shillings per hundred, in consequence of which, a trade was opened with the frontier Indians, and the five Nations. The skins of the deer, elk, and buffalo, and the furs of the otter, hare, fox, muskrat, and beaver, were procured for rum, hatchets, blankets, &c. These skins and furs were exported to England. English grain and Indian corn were also exported to a considerable extent. Although the Virginians owned a few vessels, the greater part of the trade was carried on by English vessels, during this period. They brought to the colony English manufactures, and took tobacco, furs, skins, grain, tar, pitch, &c. in return. The Virginians also carried on some trade with Canada.

The principal article of export from New-England during this period was peltry, which was procured of the Indians for goods of small value. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Anne, and in 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

The first vessel directly from the West Indies was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which arrived at Marblehead, 1635. The first American vessel that went to the West Indies was a pinnace of thirty tons, in 1636. The ship *Desire* of Salem made a voyage in 1638 to New-Providence and Tortuga, and returned laden with cotton, tobacco, salt, and negroes. This was the first introduction of African slaves into New-England. The first importation of indigo, and sugar, from the West Indies, mentioned in our accounts, was made in 1639. In 1642, a Dutch ship exchanged a cargo of salt for plank and pipe staves, the exports of lumber from New-England. The next year, eleven ships sailed for the West Indies with lumber.

In 1678, the annual exports of the New-York colony, besides beef, pork, tobacco, and peltry, were about sixty thousand bushels of wheat. About ten or fifteen vessels on an average of one hundred tons, English and Colonial, traded to this colony in a year.

Section XXXIX. **Agriculture.** Early attention was paid to agriculture. The first business of the settlers, was to clear the forests and supply themselves with food from the soil. But the fertility of the earth taught them soon to look to agriculture as a source of wealth, as well as of subsistence. It therefore became the leading object of industry in the colonies.

The method adopted by the first settlers to clear the land was ry slow and laborious, compared with the present modes. ney used generally to cut down the trees and *dig up* the mps, before tillage.

Tobacco was early cultivated in Virginia, and soon began to be ported. The year after the colony landed, the people gather- corn of their own planting, the seed of which they received of Indians. Vineyards were attempted, and experienced vine- essers were sent over for the purpose of taking care of them. ax, hemp, barley, &c. were cultivated to a considerable ex- nt. Rye was first raised in Massachusetts, in 1633. Ploughs re early introduced into the country.

The first neat cattle, ever brought into New-England, were roduced by Mr. Winslow, in 1624. In 1629, one hundred d forty head of cattle, some horses, sheep, and goats, were ought to Massachusetts Bay. In a few years they became numerous as to supply all the wants of the inhabitants. In 23, the cattle in Virginia had increased to above one thousand ad.

New-York raised considerable beef and pork for exportation, d in 1678, they exported sixty thousand bushels of wheat.

Section XL. Arts and Manufactures.

The colonists, during this period, being chiefly occupied in gaining a subsistence, and in protecting themselves against their enemies, had occasion for few articles beyond the necessaries and comforts of life. Arts and manufactures could, therefore, receive but little encouragement, beyond the construction of such articles, and even those were principally imported.

In 1620, one hundred and fifty persons came from England Virginia to carry on the manufacture of silks, iron, potash, tar, itch, glass, salt, &c. but they did not succeed. In 1673, Cha! ner says of New-England, "There be five iron works which ast no guns—no house in New-England has above twenty ooms—not twenty in Boston have ten rooms each—a dancing chool was set up here, but put down—a fencing school is al- owed. There be no musicians by trade. All cordage, sail- loth, and mats, come from England—no cloth made there worth our shillings per yard—no alum, no copperas, no salt, made by heir sun."

The first buildings of the settlers were made of logs and thatched, or were built of stone. Brick and framed houses were soon

built in the larger towns, and afterwards in the villages. The frames and brick were, however, in some instances, imported. The first mill in New-England was a wind-mill, near Watertown, but it was taken down in 1632, and placed in the vicinity of Boston. Water-mills began to be erected the next year. The first attempt to build water-craft, in New-England, was at Plymouth, in 1626. A house carpenter sawed their largest boat into two parts, and lengthened it five or six feet, built a deck, and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did service for seven years. The first vessel, built in Massachusetts, was a bark in 1631, called *The Blessing of the Bay*. In 1633, a ship of sixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, one of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead. In 1641, a ship of three hundred tons was launched at Salem, and one of one hundred and sixty tons at Boston. From this time ship building rapidly extended in the northern colonies.

The first *printing* in New-England, was done in 1639, by one Day. The proprietor of the press, was a clergyman, by the name of Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first thing printed was the Freeman's Oath, the second an Almanack, and the third an edition of the Psalms. No other printing press was established in America, during this period. John Elliot, the celebrated missionary, having translated the bible into the Indian language, had it printed at Cambridge in 1664.

The mode of travelling considerable distances was on foot or on horseback, there being no carriages for that purpose, and the roads from one village to another being only narrow foot-paths, through forests.

Section XLI. **Population.** We may estimate the population of the English American colonies at the close of this period at about 200,000.

It is impossible to ascertain very exactly the population of the American colonies at the close of this period. The estimates made by writers are vague, and often contradictory. The estimate of Dr. Humphries in 1701, which seems as well entitled to credit as any other, is as follows:

	Souls.		*Souls.*
Massachusetts,	70,000	New-York,	30,000
Connecticut,	30,000	Jerseys,	15,000
Rhode-Island,	10,000	Pennsylvania,	20,000
New-Hampshire,	10,000	Maryland,	25,000
		Virginia,	40,000

ew-England,	120,000	North Carolina,	5,000
id. and S. Colonies,	142,000	South Carolina,	7,000
Total,	262,000		142,000

Making a deduction from this account, so as to bring the esti-
ate to the close of our period, we state the whole white popu
ion of the English American colonies in 1689, at about two
ndred thousand.

Section XLII. **Education.** In New-Eng-
nd schools were founded at the outset of the
lonies for the education of *all classes:* in the
uthern colonies, provisions for the education
the *higher classes only* were attempted during
is period.

Scarcely had the American colonists opened the forests, and
nstructed habitations, before they directed their attention to
object of education.

Previously to 1619, the king of England authorized the col-
tion of monies throughout the kingdom to erect a col-
e in Virginia, for the education of Indian children; one
usand five hundred pounds were collected for this purpose,
d *Henrico* was selected as a suitable place for the seminary.
e same year, the Virginia company granted ten thousand
es of land for the projected university.—This donation, while
mbraced the original object, was intended also for the foun-
ion of a seminary of learning for English scholars.

In addition to a college, the colonists, in 1621, instituted a
ool at Charles' city for the benefit of all the colony, which
y called the *East India School.* For the maintenance of the
ster and usher, one thousand acres of land were appropriated,
h five servants and an overseer.—From this school, pupils
re to be transferred to the college at Henrico, when the latter
uld be sufficiently endowed. These establishments in Vir-
ia, however, failed of success, and in 1692, their funds were
en to William and Mary's college, which we shall notice
eafter.

Still more attentive to education were the northern colonies.
1630, a general court of Massachusetts Bay appropriated the
n of four hundred pounds towards the commencement of a
ege. In 1637, the college was located at Newtown, which,
long after, was called *Cambridge*, in memory of Cambridge
England, where many of the colonists had received their edu-
on. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy minister, dying at

Charlestown about this time, bequeathed nearly eight hundred pounds to the college, in consideration of which legacy, it was called after him. In 1642 was held the first commencement, at which nine were graduated.

To this institution, the plantations of Connecticut and New-Haven, so long as they remained unable to support a similar one at home, contributed funds from the publick purse; and sent to it such of their youth as they wished to be educated. Private subscriptions were also made from the united colonies to aid the institution.

Great attention was also paid by all the colonies to the subject of common schools. As a specimen of the arrangements common to the New-England colonies, we may notice those of Connecticut. By her first code, in 1639, only six years from the time the first house was erected within the colony, it was ordered that every town, consisting of fifty families, should maintain a good school, in which reading and writing should be well taught, and that in every county town a good grammar school should be instituted. Large tracts of land were appropriated by the legislature as a permanent support of these schools, and the selectmen of every town were required to see that all heads of families instructed their children and servants to read the English tongue well.

Reflections.

XLIII. At the commencement of this period, our history presented us with a continent, over whose surface an interminable wilderness had for ages cast its deep and solemn shade. If we approach the shore, and look through the gloom that gathers over it, the scenes which strike the eye are Indians at their war dance, or perhaps flames curling round some expiring captive, or wild beasts mangling their prey.

Passing from this point of time to the close of our period, a space of eighty-two years, the prospect is greatly changed. We *now* see smiling fields and cheerful villages in the place of dismal forests; instead of beasts of prey, we see grazing herds; instead of the kindling faggot, we witness the worship of Jesus Christ; and instead of the appalling war whoop, we listen to the grateful songs of David. In the beautiful words of scripture, the wilderness has *begun* to blossom as the rose, and the desert is becoming vocal with the praises of God.

But how is it that a change so wonderful has been brought to pass? We have indeed seen the hardy spirit of enterprise leaving the luxuries of Europe, and plunging into the forests of

merica. But we have also seen our forefathers struggling with ifficulties, and often trembling on the very brink of ruin. We ave seen them amidst Indian war, desolating famine, and pes-ence; and we have wondered after the storm has passed, to ee them rise with renovated strength, and seem to gather power nd advantage from circumstances calculated to overwhelm em.

Admitting then, the extraordinary energy, wisdom, enterprise, nd hardihood of the first settlers of America, still we are driven the admission of a benign providence working in their fa-our, and mysteriously establishing their strength and security, y exercising them for years with danger, trial, and misfortune.

Nor are these the only considerations which excite our admi-ation, in regard to the first settlers of North America. Al-nough, in the eloquent words of Mr. Walsh, "It was their pe-uliar lot, at one and the same time, to clear and cultivate a wil-erness; to erect habitations and procure sustenance; to struggle ith a new and rigorous climate; to bear up against all the bit-er recollections inseparable from distant and lonely exile; to efend their liberties from the jealous tyranny and bigotry of ne mother country; to be perpetually assailed by a savage foe, ne most subtle and the most formidable of any people on the ace of the earth:"—still, they looked forward to the welfare of uture generations—laid broad and deep foundations for religious nstitutions—made the most careful provisions for learning, and nacted wholesome laws, the benefit of which is distinctly felt this day.

In our introduction, we have remarked that history shows the nfluence of the manners of a people upon their government, nd the reciprocal influence of government upon the manners of people. The history of this period furnishes striking exam-les of this. In Virginia, the free and licentious manners of so-iety produce a government unsteady and capricious. This go-ernment re-acts upon their manners, and aids rather than checks heir licentiousness. On the contrary, in New-England, the se-vere puritanical manners of the people produce a rigid, energet-ck government, and this government returns its puritanical in-luence back upon the manners of the people.

UNITED STATES.

Period III.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WARS OF KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, AND GEORGE II.

Extending from the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, *to the Declaration of the War by England against France*, 1756, *called "the French and Indian War."*

Section I. The news of William's accession to the throne of England, filled the colonies with ecstacy. Under the sudden impulse of their feelings, the inhabitants of Boston seized Sir Edmund Andross, with about fifty of his associates, and put them in close confinement, where they lay, until ordered to England, to answer for male-administration. Connecticut and Rhode-Island immediately resumed their charters, and were permitted by his majesty to re-establish their former governments. Massachusetts soon after obtained a new charter, in some respects less favourable to the colony, but in others, more so, than its former one.

Andross had formerly been governour of New-York, under the duke of York, in which province his administration had been distinguished for measures both arbitrary and severe. Subsequent governours, under the duke, and after he came to the throne, had generally pursued a similar course. The discontents of the people had been

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES

ANNE

WILLIAM III. GEORGE II.

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

gradually increasing, and they were ready for evolution, when the above intelligence of the proceedings at Boston arrived. A revolution oon commenced, and, although attended by unappy events, issued in the restoration of the ights of the people, and the formation of a constitution, which laid the foundation of their provincial code.

From the reduction of New-York, in 1664, to 1683, the people had no share in the government. In 1681, the council court f assizes, and corporation, had solicited the duke of York to ermit the people to choose their own rulers. Accordingly, the ext year, Thomas Dongan, a papist, was appointed governur, with instructions to call an assembly, to consist of a counil of ten, and of eighteen representatives, elected by the freeolders.

On the accession of the duke of York to the throne, under the tle of James II. he refused to confirm to the people the priviges granted them when he was duke. No assembly was permitted to be convened; printing presses were prohibited, and ne more important provincial offices were conferred on papists.

Such was the state of things, when intelligence of the seizure f Andross arrived. This gave a spring to the general dissatisaction, which burst forth into open resistance to the existing adinistration.

One Jacob Leisler, with several others, immediately took possession of the fort. Governour Dongan had just embarked for England, leaving the administration of the government, during is absence, to Charles Nicholson, at that time his deputy. Nicholson and his officers made what opposition to Leisler they vere able, but he having been joined by six militia captains, nd four hundred and seventy men, Nicholson absconded. Upon his, Leisler assumed the supreme command.

This assumption of Leisler was far from being pleasant to ne council and magistrates, at the head of whom were Col. Bayrd and the mayor. Finding it impossible, however, to succeed against Leisler in New-York, they retired to Albany, and here employed their influence to foment opposition. Both Leisler, in New-York, and the people at Albany, held their respective garrisons in the name of William and Mary, but neither would submit to the authority of the other.

In this state of things, a letter from the lords Carmathen and Halifax, arrived, directed, "To Francis Nicholson, Esq. or in

his absence, to such as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace and administering the laws," &c. Accompanying this letter, was another of a subsequent date, vesting Nicholson with the chief command.

As Nicholson had absconded, Leisler construed the letter as directed to himself, and from that time assumed the title and authority of lieutenant governour. The southern part of New-York generally submitted to him; but Albany refusing subjection, Milborn, his son-in-law, was sent to reduce them. In his first attempt he failed; but during the ensuing spring, 1690, he took possession of the fort, and the inhabitants submitted.

On the 19th of March, 1691, Col. Slaughter arrived at New-York, in the capacity of the king's governour. Nicholson and Bayard, who had been imprisoned by Leisler, were released. The latter was obliged to abandon the fort, and with Milborn, his son-in-law, was apprehended, tried for high treason, and condemned. Their immediate execution was urged by the people; but the governour, fearful of consequences, chose to defer it. To effect their purpose, an invitation was given him by the citizens to a sumptuous feast, and while his reason was drowned in intoxication, a warrant for their execution was presented to him and signed. Before he recovered his senses, the prisoners were no more.

Measures so violent greatly agitated the existing parties, but in the end, the revolution which had taken place, restored the rights of Englishmen to the colony. Governour Slaughter convoked an assembly, who formed a constitution. This constitution, among other provisions, secured trials by jury, freedom from taxation, except by the consent of the assembly, and toleration to all denominations of Christians, excepting Roman Catholicks.

Section II. While these troubles were distressing the colonies of the north, that of Carolina, in the south, was far from being in a state of tranquillity. Dissensions early arose in that colony respecting the proprietary government, under which they still continued. On the one hand, a part of the people insisted upon implicit obedience to all the laws and regulations of the proprietors in England: while another part contended, on the other hand, that no such obedience was due Both parties being ardent and deter-

nined, the conflict between them was violent, nd greatly prolonged, to the serious injury of he colony.

In addition to these dissensions, others arose etween the English settlers, and a colony of rench Protestants who had planted themselves n the county of Craven; to whom the English enied nearly every civil privilege, and especially ne right of representation in the assembly.

In view of these accumulating troubles, John rchdale, one of the proprietors, was sent to merica in 1695, with full powers to redress rievances, and, if possible, to adjust existing ifferences.

Archdale was received with cordiality, and by is singular wisdom and address, was so happy s to accomplish the purposes of his mission, exept that he was unable fully to secure the rights nd liberties of the French refugees. Not long fter, however, the prejudices of the English gainst them abated, and they became incorpoated with the freemen of the colony.

Section III. About this period, 1692, commenced in Danvers, then a part of Salem, Massachuetts, a singular infatuation on the supposed prealence of witchcraft. In a short time, this infauation pervaded several parts of New-England, roducing, in its progress, the greatest distress n private families and disorder and tumult nroughout the country.

The first suspicion of witchcraft in New-England, and in the nited States, began at Springfield, Massachusetts, as early as 645. Several persons, about that time, were accused, tried, nd executed in Massachusetts; one at Charlestown, one at orchester, one at Cambridge, and one at Boston. For almost irty years afterwards the subject rested. But in 1687 or 1688, was revived in Boston; four of the children of John Goodwin niting in accusing a poor Irish woman with bewitching them.

Unhappily the accusation was regarded with attention, and the woman was tried and executed.

Near the close of February, 1692, the subject was again revived, in consequence of several children in Danvers, Salem, beginning to act in a peculiar and unaccountable manner. Their strange conduct* continuing for several days, their friends betook themselves to fasting and prayer. During religious exercises it was found that the children were generally decent and still; but after service was ended, they renewed their former inexplicable conduct. This was deemed sufficient evidence that they were labouring under the influence of witchcraft.

At the expiration of some days, the children began to accuse several persons in the neighbourhood of bewitching them. Unfortunately they were credited, and the suspected authors of the spell, were seized and imprisoned.

From this date, the awful mania rapidly spread into the neighbouring country, and soon appeared in various parts of Essex-Middlesex, and Suffolk. Persons at Andover, Ipswich, Gloucester, Boston, and several other places, were accused by their neighbours and others.

For some time, the victims were selected only from the lower classes. But at length the accusations fell upon persons of the most respectable rank. In August, Mr. George Boroughs, some time minister in Salem, was accused, brought to trial, and condemned. Accusations were also brought against Mr. English, a respectable merchant in Salem, and his wife; against Messrs. Dudley and John Bradstreet, sons of the then late governour Bradstreet; against the wife of Mr. Hale, and the lady of Sir William Phipps.

The evil had now become awfully alarming. One man, named Giles Corey, had been pressed to death for refusing to put him-

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* The manner in which those who were supposed to be afflicted with this malady were exercised, is thus described by Cotton Mather in his Magnalia. "Sometimes they were deaf, sometimes dumb, sometimes blind, and often all this at once. Their tongues would be drawn down their throats, and then pulled out upon their chins to a prodigious length. Their mouths were forced open to such a wideness that their jaws went out of joint; and anon would clap together again with a force like that of a spring lock; and the like would happen to their shoulder-blades, and their elbows, and their hand-wrists, and several of their joints. Sometimes they would be benumbed, and be drawn violently together, and presently stretched out and drawn back. They complained that they were cut with knives and struck with blows, and the prints of the wounds were seen upon them." We cannot believe that all this *actually* took place; probably the persons were singularly affected, and the excited fancies of those who looked on, added the rest of the picture.

f on trial by jury; and nineteen persons had been executed, re than one third of whom were members of the church. ne hundred and fifty were in prison, and two hundred were cused.

At length the inquiry was anxiously suggested, where will s accumulating mischief and misery end? A conviction be- n to spread that the proceedings had been rash and indefen- le. A special court was held on the subject, and fifty who re brought to trial, were acquitted, excepting three, who were erwards reprieved by the governour. These events were fol- wed by a general release of those who had been imprisoned. Thus the cloud," says the late President Dwight, "which had long hung over the colony, slowly and sullenly retired; and e the darkness of Egypt, was, to the great joy of the distress- inhabitants, succeeded by serenity and sunshine."*

We, who live to look back upon this scene, are wont to con- mplate, with wonder, the seeming madness and infatuation, not the weak, illiterate, and unprincipled; but of men of sense, ucation, and fervent piety. Let us consider, however, that this period, the actual existence of witchcraft was taken for anted, and that doubts respecting it were deemed little less an heresy. The learned Baxter, who lived at this time in ngland, where the same notions on this subject prevailed, pro- unced the disbeliever in witchcraft, an "obdurate Sadducee;" d Sir Matthew Hale, one of the brightest ornaments of the nglish bench, repeatedly tried and condemned those as crimi- ls, who were accused of witchcraft.

The human mind is prone to superstition, and more or less of prevails in every country, even in those which are civilized d refined, and upon which divine revelation sheds its light. the case of the people of Essex, where this delusion chiefly evailed, there were circumstances existing which did not exist England. They had lived for some years among the savages, d heard their narratives of Hobbamocko, or the devil, of his equent appearance to them, of their conversations with him, d of his sometimes carrying them off. Every village was the eatre of some such scenes, and stories of mystery and won- r, heightened by imagination, went the rounds during their inter evenings, confirmed their opinions, roused their admira- on, and furnished materials for approaching terrours.

The circumstances attending the first strange appearances ere also unfortunate, and powerfully tended to give them cur- ncy. The family of a minister, who was himself credulous,

*Dwight's Travels.

and with whom an Indian and his wife lived, were first affected. The opinions of the Indians were deemed important, as they were supposed to be adepts in the science of witchcraft. Added to this, the physician of the village concurred in the opinion, and the fact was therefore no longer to be doubted. The attention of the publick mind was immediately roused, and as others seemed to be exercised in a similar manner, the way was prepared for the delusion to spread. Children of not more than twelve years of age were permitted to give their testimony; Indians were called to tell their stories of wonder, and women their nocturnal frights. For a time the counsels of age were unheard; wisdom was confounded, and religion silenced.

If, however, the uniform protestations of those who were executed, or the confessions of numbers who had been accusers, or the conviction of errour on the part of those who were leaders in these awful scenes, be credited, we shall be satisfied that the whole originated in folly and delusion. All who were executed, excepting the first, protested their innocence with their dying breath, when a confession would have saved their lives. Years afterwards, those who had been accusers, when admitted to the church, acknowledged their delusion, and asked "pardon for having brought the guilt of innocent blood on the land."

Even juries, who had been concerned in the trial and condemnation of some of these unfortunate sufferers, recanted their errours. "We do signify," to use the language of a jury subsequently conscious of their wrong, "our deep sense of, and sorrow for, our errours in acting on such evidence; we pray that we may be considered candidly and aright, by the living sufferers, as being then, under the power of a general and strong delusion." In one instance at least, a church, that of Danvers, which had excommunicated a person on suspicion of witchcraft, and who was hung, four years afterwards, recalled the sentence, "that it might not stand against her to all generations."

In conclusion it may be remarked, that no people on earth are *now* more enlightened on this subject than are the people of America. Nothing of a similar kind has since existed, and probably never will exist. Stories of wonder, founded upon ancient tradition, or upon a midnight adventure, sometimes awe the village circle on a winter's night, but the succeeding day chases away every ghost, and lulls every fear. It becomes the present generation to advert with gratitude to their freedom from those delusions which distressed and agitated their ancestors, rather than to bestow invectives upon them, since they could plead in palliation of their errour—the spirit of the age in which they lived.

Section IV. Scarcely were the colonies relieved from the oppression of king James, before ey were visited with troubles of a nature still ore distressing. The revolution, which followed the accession of William and Mary, had inred restored their liberties, but it involved them a war both with the French and Indians, which ntinued from 1690, to the peace of Ryswick, 1697, commonly called "*King William's ar.*"

King James, on leaving England, fled to France. Louis XIV. g of France, attempting to support him, kindled the flame of war ween his own country and England. The subjects of Louis, Canada, of course directed their arms against the colonies of w-England and New-York, and instigated the Indians to join m in their hostilities.

Count Frontenac, a brave and enterprising ofer, was now the governour of Canada. Inmed with the resentment which had kindled the bosom of his master, Louis XIV. of France, gainst William, for his treatment of James, he ted out three expeditions, in the dead of winter, gainst the American colonies—one against Nework, a second against New-Hampshire, and a ird against the province of Maine. Each of ese parties, in the execution of their orders, arked their progress with plunder, fire, and eath.

The party destined against New-York, consisting of about ree hundred men, in February fell upon Schenectady, a vilge on the Mohawk. The season was cold, and the snow so ep, that it was deemed impossible for an enemy to approach. he attack was made in the dead of the night, while the inhabits were in a profound sleep. Not a sentinel was awake to nounce the approaching danger. Care had been taken, by a vision of the enemy, to attack almost every house in the same oment. When the preparations were ready, on a preconcert- signal, the apalling war-whoop was begun: houses were bron open and set on fire—men and women were dragged from

their beds, and with their sleeping infants were inhumanly murdered. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, thirty were made prisoners, while the rest of the inhabitants, mostly naked, fled through a deep snow, either suffering extremely, or perishing in the cold.

The second party, directing their course to New-Hampshire, burned Salmon Falls, killing thirty of the bravest men, and carrying fifty-four of the inhabitants into a miserable captivity.

The third party, proceeding from Quebec, destroyed the settlement of Casco, in Maine, and killed and captured one hundred people.

Section V. Roused by these proceedings of the French, the colony of Massachusetts resolved to attack the enemy in turn. Accordingly an expedition consisting of seven vessels, and eight hundred men, under command of Sir William Phipps, sailed for the reduction of Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, which was easily and speedily effected.

A second expedition, under the same commander, was soon after resolved upon by the colonies of New-York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, united, for the reduction of Montreal and Quebec. A combination of unfortunate circumstances, however, defeated the design, and the expedition after encountering numerous hardships and disasters, returned.

The plan was for the troops of New-York and Connecticut, consisting of about two thousand, to penetrate into Canada, by Lake Champlain, and to attack Montreal, at the same time that the naval armament, consisting of between thirty and forty vessels, with a similar number of men, should invest Quebec. The troops destined for Montreal not being supplied, either with boats or provisions, sufficient for crossing the lake, were obliged to return. The naval expedition did not reach Quebec, until October. After spending several days in consultation, the landing of the troops was effected, and they began their march for the town. At the same time the ships were drawn up: but the attack, both by land and water, was alike unsuccessful. The troops were soon after re-embarked, and the weather, prov-

tempestuous, scattered the fleet, and terminated the expedi-

The success of the expedition had been so confidently calcu-d upon, that provision had not been made for the payment he troops; there was danger, therefore, of a mutiny. In extremity, Massachusetts issued bills of credit, as a substi- for money; the first emission of the kind in the American nies.

ir William Phipps, to whom the above expeditions were en- ted, was a native of New-England. The extraordinary in- nts of his life will serve to exhibit the powerful spirit of per- al enterprise which the peculiar circumstances of the colo- called forth.

The place of his birth, which happened in 1650, was a small ntation, on the river Kennebeck, at that time nearly the limit he English settlements on the east. His father was a gun- th, who had a family of twenty-six children by one wife, nty-one of whom were sons, of which William was nearly youngest. His father dying while he was quite a lad, he d with his mother until his eighteenth year, during which he was chiefly concerned in the care of sheep. Contrary ne wishes of his friends, he now indented himself as an ap- ntice to a ship-carpenter, for four years, in which time he be- e master of his art. Upon the expiration of his service, he t to Boston, where he followed his trade about a year, during ch he learned to read and write, and in which time he was ectably married.

ailing of that success in his trade, which his enterprising ge- coveted, he turned his attention to the sea, and during his first age, hearing of a Spanish wreck near the Bahamas, he di- ed his course thither, but obtained from it only sufficient to ish himself for a voyage to England. On his arrival in that ntry, he heard of another Spanish wreck, in which was lost mmense treasure; but the precise spot of which was as yet un- overed. Being sanguine in the belief that he should be more cessful than those who had preceded him, in their attempts iscover it, he solicited the patronage of several persons in ce, through whose influence he was appointed to the Algier e, an English frigate of eighteen guns and ninety-five men, which, some time after, he sailed in quest of the wreck.

t often happens that Divine Providence, previously to crown- a man's exertions with success, involves him for a season in culties, and tries him with disappointments. This was strik- y verified in the case of Capt. Phipps. Not meeting with success which he had promised his crew, they at length be- e mutinous, and on a sudden rushed upon him, while on the

quarter deck, with drawn swords, and demanded of him, as the only condition of life, that he should join them in escaping to the South Seas, to engage in piracy. Although entirely unarmed, he stood firm and collected until he had fixed his plan, and then with a courage bordering on rashness rushed in upon their pointed swords, dealing his blows so judiciously that he felled numbers to the deck, and so awed the rest, that they consented to yield. At another time finding it necessary to careen his vessel, he put into a desolate Spanish island, near to a rock from which a temporary bridge was extended to the ship. Mutiny was secretly working among his crew. While preparations were making by the carpenter for repairing the vessel, ninety of his men left her, and retired into the adjoining wood, under pretence of diversion, but in reality for mutinous purposes. Here a plan was formed, which was to seize Capt. Phipps, and the nine or ten men who were known to be friendly to him, and to abandon them to their fate on the island.

Apprehensive that the carpenter might be necessary on their voyage, they sent to him, then at work on the vessel, and requested that he would come to them. On his arrival he was apprized of their design, and threatened with death should he not second their views. The carpenter, being an honest man, requested an half hour to think upon the proposal, and returning to the ship, accompanied by a *spy* from the mutineers, resumed his work. On a sudden, feigning himself severely distressed with pain, he excused himself, while he should haste to the captain, who was below, for a *dram*. In few words, while the dram was getting, he discovered the plot to Capt. Phipps, and sought his advice. The captain bid him go back to the rogues, sign their articles, and leave the rest to him. No sooner had the carpenter gone, than Capt. Phipps summoned the men on board, of whom the gunner was one, and having briefly stated the plan in agitation, demanded of them, whether they would share his fortune; to which they unanimously agreed. All their provisions were on shore in a tent, round which several guns had been planted, to defend them from the Spaniards, should any chance to pass that way. These guns Capt. Phipps ordered his men to charge, and silently to turn in the direction of the mutineers, while he should pull up the bridge, and with the assistance of two or three others bring the guns on board to bear on every side of the tent.

Scarcely were these preparations ended, when the mutineers flushed with their anticipated success, made their appearance. On their nearer approach, Capt. Phipps bade them advance at their peril; at the same time directing his men to fire, should a single one come forward. Awed by his decision, and the death

e preparations visible, they paused; upon which Capt. Phipps ormed them that their plot was discovered, and that he was termined to leave them to that fate, which they had designed him, and those of the crew who were too virtuous to second ir villanous purposes. At the same time he directed the dge to be let down, and the provisions to be brought on board while some of the men should stand with matches at the guns, th orders to fire should a single mutineer advance. This unpected reverse, and especially the prospect of a certain, but a gering death on a desolate shore, had the effect to subdue e mutineers, who now on their knees besought his pardon, d promised obedience to his orders. Unwilling, however, to st them, Capt. Phipps tied their arms one after another; and ien all were on board, immediately weighed anchor, and sailed Jamaica, where he dismissed them. From this place, hav- shipped another crew, he sailed for Hispaniola, intending to oceed in search of the Spanish wreck; but his crew proving fit, he returned to England.

Through the assistance of the duke of Albemarle, and other perns of quality, he was furnished with another ship and a tender, th which he sailed for Port de la Plata, where after completing s preparations, he proceeded in search of the wreck. Having a long time fruitlessly sought the object of his voyage, in the ighbourhood of a reef of rocks called the *Boilers*, further arch was about being abandoned, when, as one of the boats as returning to the ship across the reef, one of the men looking er the side, spied as he thought a *sea feather*, growing out of a ck; whereupon an Indian diver was directed to descend and ch it up. But what were their surprise and joy, on his return, learn that he had discovered several guns, lying on the bottom the deep. A second descent of the Indian increased their joy ll more, for on his rising, he was bearing in his hand a *sow*, as ey called it, or a mass of silver, of the value of several huned pounds sterling. Tidings of the discovery were immedi-ely conveyed to Capt. Phipps, who, with his men, repaired the spot, and upon leaving the place, carried with him thirtyo tons of silver bullion, besides a large quantity of gold, pearls, d jewels, over which the billows had been rolling for more an half a century. On his arrival in London, the property us rescued was valued at nearly three hundred thousand pounds erling; yet of this sum such was his exemplary honesty and erality, that partly by fulfilling his assurances to his seamen, d partly by conscientiously paying over to his employers all eir dues, he had left to himself less than sixteen thousand unds. As a reward to his fidelity, however, he received a rge present from the duke of Albemarle, and upon a repre-

sentation of his enterprise to the king, his majesty conferred upon him the honour of knighthood. Liberal offers were made to him by the commissioners of the navy to continue in England, but he had too great an attachment for his native country to think of a permanent residence in any other land than that of New-England.

James II. was at this time on the throne of England, by whom the colonies in America had been deprived of their charters, and under whose governours they were severely suffering from arbitrary laws, and excessive exactions.—Pleased with Phipps, the king gave him an opportunity to ask of his majesty what he pleased; upon which, forgetting personal aggrandizement, he besought for New-England, that her lost privileges might be restored to her. This was too great a boon to be granted, and the king replied, "*any thing but that.*" His next request was, that he might be appointed high sheriff of the country, hoping that by means of his deputies in that office, he might supply the country with conscientious juries "which was the only method," says Mather, "that the New-Englanders had left them to secure any thing that was deär unto them."

Having at some expense obtained his request, after an absence of five years, he arrived in his native country; but the king's government found means not only to set aside his commission as high sheriff, but also to raise against him such a tide of opposition, that he had nearly been assassinated before his own door. Finding affairs in so unsettled a state, and his own situation uncomfortable, he, not long after, took another voyage to England. Soon after his arrival in that country, James abdicated the throne, and the Prince of Orange ascended it. This event was the harbinger of better things to New-England. Having tendered his services to William, and rejected with disdain the government of New-England, proffered to him about this time by the abdicated king, he hastened his return to America, hoping now to be of some service to his country. In the unsettled state of the colonies, his wisdom and influence were of great importance, and contributed not a little to forward the revolution, which issued in freeing the colonies from the tyranny of James and his ministers.

The latter part of the life of Sir William Phipps is rendered doubly interesting, by his openly espousing the cause of religion. At the age of forty he was publickly baptized in one of the churches of Boston, and received into her communion. In an address on that occasion, in conclusion he observed, "I have had proffers of baptism elsewhere made to me, but I resolved rather to defer it until I could enjoy it in the communion of these churches. I have had awful impressions from the words of the

ord Jesus, 'Whosoever shall be ashamed of me, and of my ord, of him shall the Son of Man be ashamed.' When God d blessed me with something of the world, I had no trouble great as this, lest it should not be in mercy; and I trembled nothing more than being put off with a portion here. That may be sure of better things, I now offer myself unto the communion of the faithful."

King William's war breaking out at this time, he sailed upon e expedition against Port Royal and Quebec, related above. the following year he received a commission as captain gene- l and governour in chief over the province of Massachusetts ay. No appointment could have been more acceptable to the eople. He came to the government however in unsettled times, d though his administration was marked by disinterestedness d liberality, it was his fortune, as it is the fortune of all in gh stations, to have enemies. Too restless to remain at ease, ey at length preferred charges against him to the king, who, ough satisfied of his fidelity, considering it expedient to inire into the case, directed Sir William to appear in England. obedience to the royal command, he took leave of Boston, in ov. 1694, attended with every demonstration of respect from e people, and with addresses to their Majesties, that he might e continued in his present respectable and useful station.

On his arrival in England, the cloud, which had hung over m, was fast dispelling, and the prospect flattering of his speedy turn to his government uninjured by the accusation of prejuice and calumny. But Providence had now accomplished its esigns in respect to him. He was suddenly attacked by a magnant disease, which terminated his life, in February, to the reat grief of all who were acquainted with the generosity and atriotism, integrity, and piety, that distinguished him.

The life of such a man is always replete with instruction. It eveals to those in the humbler walks of life, the means by which ey may not only arrive at distinction, but to that which is of r higher importance—an extended sphere of usefulness in hurch and state. Enterprise, exertion, integrity, will accomlish every thing.*

Section VI. The failure of the expedition to Quebec was humbling to New-England, and productive of other unhappy consequences. The ndian tribes, Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, On-

* Mather's Magnalia.

ondagos, and Delawares, called the *Five Nations*, settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, who were in alliance with Great Britain, and had long been a safeguard to the colonies against the French, became dissatisfied. They blamed the English for their inactivity, and manifested a disposition to make peace with the French.

To restore the confidence of the Indian allies, Major P. Schuyler, the next year, 1691, with three thousand men, nearly half Mohawks and Schakook Indians, made an attack on the French settlements, north of Lake Champlain. De Callieres, governour of Montreal, was waiting to oppose him. After a severe encounter, Schuyler made good his retreat, having killed thirteen officers and three hundred men.

New-York found great security against the encroachments of the French, in the Five Nations, who now carried on a vigorous war, along the river St. Lawrence, from Montreal to Quebec.

But the eastern portion of the country, particularly New-Hampshire, suffered exceedingly; the storm falling with the greatest severity upon them. Both Connecticut and Massachusetts raised troops for their defence; but such was the danger and distress of the colony of New-Hampshire, that the inhabitants were upon the point of abandoning the Province.

The winter of 1696 was unusually severe. Never had the country sustained such losses in commerce, nor had provisions, in any period of the war, been more scarce or borne a higher price.

Section VII. In the midst of these distresses, the country was threatened with a blow, which it seemed impossible that it should sustain. The marquis Nesmond, an officer of high reputation, was despatched from France, with ten ships of the line, a galliot, and two frigates. Count Frontenac, from Canada, was expected to join him at Penobscot, with one thousand five hundred men. With this force, they were to make a descent on Boston; to range the coast of Newfoundland, and burn the shipping which should fall in their way. To finish their work of de-

ruction, they were to take New-York, whence
ie troops, under Frontenac, were to return to
anada, through the country, wasting and de-
roying the regions through which they should
ass. But De Nesmond sailed too late for the
ccomplishment of his purpose. On his arrival
n the coast, not being able to join Frontenac in
eason, the expedition failed, and the colonies
ere saved. At length, Dec. 10, 1697, a treaty
as concluded between France and England, at
yswick, in Germany, by which it was agreed,
general terms, that a mutual restitution should
e made of all the countries, forts, and colonies,
ken by each party during the war.

King William's war, which was thus terminated, had been
arked by atrocities on the part of the French and Indians, un-
then, unknown in the history of the colonies. Women, soon
xpecting to become mothers, were generally ripped up, and
eir unborn offspring inhumanly dashed against a stone or tree.
nfants, when they became troublesome, were despatched in the
me manner. Or, to add to the anguish of a mother, her babe
as sometimes lacerated with a scourge, or nearly strangled
nder water, and then presented to her to quiet. If unable
on to succeed in this, it was too effectually quieted by the
tchet, or left behind to become the prey of prowling beasts.
me of the captives were roasted alive; others received deep
ounds in the fleshy parts of their bodies, into which sticks or
e were thrust, until tormented out of life, they expired. In
ne instance, an infant was tied to the corpse of its mother, and
ft to perish, vainly endeavouring to draw nourishment from
r bosom.

Great were the sufferings of those whose condition was the
st. They were subjected to the hardships of travelling with-
t shoes, without clothes, and often without food, amidst frost,
nd rain, and snow, by night and by day, through pathless de-
rts, and through gloomy swamps. No kindness was shown
em, and no pity felt for them. If they fainted under their burden,
only remitted for a moment their toil, they received from their in-
man conductors the severest chastisement, or expired by means
f a blow from the tomahawk. Such were some of the calami-
es which our ancestors endured in the defence of the country,
hich they have transmitted to us with so much honour.

The details of individual sufferings, which occurred during this war, were they faithfully recorded, would excite the sympathies of the most unfeeling bosom. One instance only can we relate.

In an attack by a body of Indians on Haverhill, New-Hampshire, in the winter of 1697, the concluding year of the war, a party of the assailants, burning with savage animosity, approached the house of a Mr. Dustan. Upon the first alarm, he flew from a neighbouring field to his family, with the hope of hurrying them to a place of safety. Seven of his children he directed to flee, while he himself went to assist his wife, who was confined to the bed with an infant, a week old. But before she could leave her bed, the savages arrived.

In despair of rendering her assistance, Mr. Dustan flew to the door, mounted his horse, and determined in his own mind, to snatch up and save the child which he loved the best. He followed in pursuit of his little flock, but, upon coming up to them, he found it impossible to make a selection. The eye of the parent could see no one of the number that he could abandon to the knife of the savage. He determined, therefore, to meet his fate with them; to defend and save them from their pursuers, or die by their side.

A body of Indains soon came up with him, and, from short distances, fired upon him and his little company. For more than a mile he continued to retreat, placing himself between his children and the fire of the savages; and returning their shots with great spirit and success. At length he saw them all safely lodged from their bloody pursuers, in a distant house.

It is not easy to find a nobler instance of fortitude and courage, inspired by affection, than is exhibited in this instance. Let us ever cultivate the influence of those ties of kindred, which are capable of giving so generous and elevated a direction to our actions.

As Mr. Dustan quitted his house, a party of Indians entered it. Mrs. Dustan was in bed; but they ordered her to rise, and, before she could completely dress herself, obliged her and the nurse, who had vainly endeavoured to escape with the infant, to quit the house, which they plundered and set on fire.

In these distressing circumstances Mrs. Dustan began her march, with other captives, into the wilderness. The air was keen, and their path led alternately through snow and deep mud; and her savage conductors delighted rather in the infliction of torment, than the alleviation of distress.

The company had proceeded but a short distance, when an Indian, thinking the infant an incumbrance, took it from the nurse's arms, and violently terminated its life. Such of the

er captives as began to be weary, and incapable of proceed-
, the Indians killed with their tomahawks. Feeble as Mrs.
stan was, both she and her nurse sustained with wonderful
rgy, the fatigue and misery attending a journey of one hun-
d and fifty miles.

On their arrival at the place of their destination, they found
wigwam of the savage, who claimed them as his personal
perty, to be inhabited by twelve Indians. In the ensuing
ril, this family set out with their captives, for an Indian set-
ment still more remote. The captives were informed that,
their arrival at the settlement, they must submit to be strip-
d, scourged, and run the gauntlet, between two files of Indians.
is information carried distress to the minds of the captive wo-
n, and led them promptly to devise some means of escape.

Early in the morning of the 31st, Mrs. Dustan awaking her
se and another fellow-prisoner, they despatched ten of the
elve Indians while asleep. The other two escaped. The
men then pursued their difficult and toilsome journey through
wilderness, and at length arrived in safety at Haverhill.
bsequently, they visited Boston, and received, at the hand
the General Court, a handsome consideration for their extra-
linary sufferings and heroick conduct.

'Whether all their sufferings," says Dr. Dwight, to whom we
indebted for this interesting story, "and all the danger of
fering anew, justified this slaughter, may probably be ques-
ned by the exact moralist. Precedents innumerable, and of
h authority, may indeed be urged in behalf of these captives;
the moralist will equally question the rectitude of these.
w persons, however, agonizing as Mrs. Dustan did, under the
ls which she had already suffered, and in the full apprehen-
n of those which she was destined to suffer, would have been
le to act the part of nice casuists; and fewer still, perhaps,
uld have exercised her intrepidity. That she herself approv-
of the conduct, which was applauded by the magistrates and
ines of the day, in the cool hours of deliberation, cannot be
ubted. The truth is, the season of Indian invasion, burning,
tchering, captivity, threatening, and torture, is an unfortunate
ie for nice investigation, and critical moralizing. A wife,
o had just seen her house burnt, her infant dashed against a
e, and her companions coldly murdered one by one; who
pposed her husband and her remaining children to have shar-
the same fate; who was threatened with torture and inde-
ncy more painful than torture; and who did not entertain a
ubt that the threatening would be fulfilled; would probably
l no necessity, when she found it in her power to despatch the

authors of her sufferings, of asking questions concerning anything, but the success of the enterprise.

"But whatever may be thought of the rectitude of *her* conduct, that of her husband is in every view honourable. A finer succession of scenes for the pencil was hardly ever presented to the eye, than is furnished by the efforts of this gallant man, with their interesting appendages. The artist must be destitute indeed of talents, who could not engross every heart, as well as every eye, by exhibitions of this husband and father, flying to rescue his wife, her infant, and her nurse, from the approaching horde of savages; attempting on his horse to select from his flying family the child which he was the least able to spare, and unable to make the selection; facing in their rear the horde of hell-hounds; alternately and sternly retreating behind his inestimable charge, and fronting the enemy again; receiving and returning their fire; and presenting himself, equally, as a barrier against murderers, and a shelter to the flight of innocence and anguish. In the back ground of some or other of these pictures, might be exhibited, with powerful impression, the kindled dwelling; the sickly mother; the terrified nurse, with the new-born infant in her arms; and the furious natives surrounding them, driving them forward, and displaying the trophies of savage victory, and the insolence of savage triumph."

Section VIII. Scarcely had the colonies recovered from the wounds and impoverishment of King William's war, which ended in 1697, before they were again involved in the horrours of another war with the French, Indians, and Spaniards, commonly called "*Queen Anne's War*," which continued from 1702, to the peace of Utrecht, March 31st, 1713.

By the treaty of Ryswick, it was in general terms agreed, that France and England should mutually restore to each other all conquests made during the war. But the rights and pretensions of either monarch to certain places in Hudson's Bay, &c. were left to be ascertained and determined at some future day, by commissioners.

The evil consequences of leaving boundaries thus unsettled were soon perceived. Disputes arose, which, mingling with other differences of still greater importance, led England to declare war against France and Spain, May 4th, 1702.

Section IX. The whole weight of the war in America, unexpectedly fell on New-England.

ne geographical position of New-York particu-
lly exposed that colony to a combined attack
m the lakes and sea; but just before the com-
ncement of hostilities, a treaty of neutrality
s concluded between the five Nations and the
ench governour in Canada. The local situa-
n of the Five Nations, bordering on the fron-
rs of New-York, prevented the French from
lesting that colony; Massachusetts and New-
mpshire were thus left to bear the chief ca-
nities of the war.

The declaration of war was immediately fol-
ved by incursions of French and Indians from
nada into these colonies, who seized every
portunity for annoying the inhabitants by de-
edation and outrage.

On Tuesday, Feb. 29th, 1704, at day break, a party of French
Indians, three hundred in number, under command of the
mous Hextel De Rouville, fell upon Deerfield, Mass. Un-
pily, not only the inhabitants, but even the watch were
ep. They soon made themselves masters of the house in
ich the garrison was kept. Proceeding thence to the house
Mr. Williams the clergyman, they forced the doors, and en-
ed the room where he was sleeping.

Awaked by the noise, Mr. Williams seized his pistol, and
pped it at the Indian who first approached, but it missed
. Mr. Williams was now seized, disarmed, bound, and kept
nding, without his clothes, in the intense cold, nearly an
ır.

His house was next plundered, and two of his children, toge-
r with a black female servant, were butchered before his eyes.
e savages at length suffered his wife and five children to put
their clothes, after which, he was himself allowed to dress,
l prepare for a long and melancholy march.

The whole town around them was now on fire. Every house,
the one next to Mr. Williams' was consumed. This house
till standing; a hole cut by the savages in the door, and the
rks of the bullets in the walls, are visible to this day.

Having completed their work of destruction, in burning the
vn, and killing forty-seven persons, the enemy hastily retreat-
taking with them one hundred of the inhabitants, among
om, were Mr. Williams and his family

The first night after their departure from Deerfield, the savages murdered Mr. Williams' servant, and on the day succeeding, finding Mrs. Williams unable to keep pace with the rest, plunged a hatchet into her head. She had recently borne an infant, and was not yet recovered. But her husband was not permitted to assist her. He himself was lame, bound, insulted, threatened, and nearly famished—but what were personal sufferings like these, and even greater than these, to the sight of a wife under circumstances so tender, inhumanly butchered before his eyes! Before the journey was ended, seventeen others shared the melancholy fate of Mrs. Williams.

On their arrival in Canada, it may be added, Mr. Williams was treated with civility by the French. At the end of two years, he was redeemed with fifty-seven others, and returned to Deerfield, where, after twelve years labour in the gospel, he entered into his rest.

Section X. In the spring of 1707, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and New-Hampshire, fitted out an expedition against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. The expedition, consisting of one thousand men, sailed from Nantucket in twenty-three transports, under convoy of the Deptford man of war, and the Province galley. After a short voyage, they arrived at Port Royal; but March, the commander of the expedition, though a brave man, being unfit to lead in an enterprise so difficult, little was done, beyond burning a few houses, and killing a few cattle.

While this unfortunate expedition was on foot, the frontiers were kept in constant alarm. Oyster River, Exeter, Kingston, and Dover, in New-Hampshire, Berwick, York, Wells, and Casco, in Maine, were attacked, and considerably damaged by the enemy.

Section XI. The colonies were now resolved on another attempt upon Canada. In 1708, Massachusetts petitioned Queen Anne for assistance, and she promised to send five regiments of regular troops. These, with twelve hundred men raised in Massachusetts and Rhode-Island, were to sail from Boston to Quebec.

A second division of one thousand eight hun-
ed men, from colonies south of Rhode-Island,
re to march against Montreal, by way of
amplain ; but this project also failed, the land
ops returning, after penetrating to Wood
eek, in consequence of learning that the naval
nament, promised from England, had been
ected to Portugal.

Section XII. The patience of the colonies was
t yet exhausted. Another application was
de to the Queen, and in July, 1710, Col. Ni-
olson came over with five frigates and a bomb
tch, for the purpose of reducing Port Royal.
this expedition, he was joined by five regi-
nts of troops from New-England.

The armament, consisting of the above frigates,
d between twenty and thirty transports, belong-
g to the colonies, sailed from Boston, Septem-
r 18th. On the 24th, it reached Port Royal,
hich surrendered October 5th, and in honour
Queen Anne, was called *Annapolis*.

Animated with his success, Nicholson soon after sailed for
gland, to solicit another expedition against Canada. Con-
ry to the expectations of the colonies, the ministry acceded
he proposal, and orders were issued to the northern colonies
get ready their quotas of men.

Sixteen days after these orders arrived, a fleet of men of war
d transports, under command of Sir Hovenden Walker, with
en regiments of the duke of Marlborough's troops, and a bat-
on of marines, under Brigadier Gen. Hill, sailed into Boston.
t the fleet had neither provisions nor pilots. Aided, how-
er, by the prompt and active exertions of the colonies, on the
th of July, the fleet, consisting of fifteen men of war, forty
nsports, and six store ships, with nearly seven thousand men,
led from Boston for Canada.

Shortly after the departure of the fleet, general Nicholson pro-
eded from Albany towards Canada, at the head of four thou-
nd men, from the colonies of Connecticut, New-York, and
w-Jersey.

The fleet arrived in the St. Lawrence, Aug. 14th. In proceed-

ing up the river, through the unskilfulness of the pilots, and by contrary winds, it was in imminent danger of entire destruction. On the 22d, about midnight, the seamen discovered that they were driven on the north shore, among islands and rocks. Eight or nine of the British transports, on board of which were about one thousand seven hundred officers and soldiers, were cast away, and nearly one thousand men were lost. Upon this disaster, no further attempts were made to prosecute the expedition. The fleet sailed directly for England, and the provincial troops returned home. Gen. Nicholson, who had advanced to Lake George, hearing of the miscarriage of the expedition on the St. Lawrence, returned with the land forces, and abandoned the enterprise.

The failure of this expedition was unjustly imputed, by the mother country, wholly to New-England; nor did the colonies receive any credit for their vigorous exertions in raising men and fitting out the fleet. The expedition was not, however, without a beneficial effect, as it probably prevented Annapolis from falling into the hands of the enemy.

Section XIII. The spring of 1712 opened with new depredations of the enemy upon the frontier settlements. Oyster River, Exeter, York, Wells, &c. were again attacked and plundered. Many inhabitants in different parts of the country were murdered, although, in some portions of the colonies, one half of the militia were constantly on duty.

Section XIV. The northern colonies were not alone in the distresses of Queen Anne's war. Carolina, then the southern frontier of the American colonies, had her full share in its expenses and sufferings.

Before official intelligence had been received of the declaration of war by England against France and Spain, in 1702, although war had actually been declared, Gov. Moore, of the southern settlements in Carolina, proposed to the assembly of the colony an expedition against the Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, Florida.

Although assured of its easy conquest, and of

eing amply rewarded by its treasures of gold
id silver, numbers of the more considerate in
e assembly were opposed to the expedition.
majority, however, being in favour of it, two
housand pounds were voted, and one thousand
vo hundred men were raised, of whom one
alf were Indians—but the expedition entirely
iled.

With the forces above named, and some merchant vessels,
pressed as transports, Gov. Moore sailed for St. Augustine.
he design was for Col. Daniel, an enterprising officer, to pro-
ed by the inland passage, and to attack the town by land, with
party of militia and Indians; while Moore was to proceed by
a, and take possession of the harbour. Daniel advanced
gainst the town, entered and plundered it, before the governour's
rival. The Spaniards, however, retired to the castle, with
eir principal riches, and with provisions for four months.
The governour, on his arrival, could effect nothing for want
artillery. In this emergency, Daniel was despatched to Ja-
aica for cannon, mortars, &c. During his absence, two large
panish ships appearing off the harbour, Gov. Moore hastily
ised the siege, abandoned his shipping, and made a precipitate
treat into Carolina. Col. Daniel, having no intelligence that
e siege had been raised, on his return, stood in for the harbour,
id narrowly escaped the ships of the enemy. In consequence
f this rash and unfortunate enterprise, the colony was loaded
ith a debt of six thousand pounds, which gave rise to the first
aper currency in Carolina, and was the means of filling the
olony with dissension and tumult.

Section XV. The failure of this expedition
vas soon after, in a measure, compensated by a
uccessful war with the Apalachian Indians, who,
n consequence of their connexion with the Span-
ards, became insolent and hostile. Gov. Moore,
vith a body of white men and Indian allies, march-
d into the heart of their country, and compelled
hem to submit to the English.

All the towns of the tribes between the rivers Altamaha and
avannah were burnt, and between six hundred and eight hun-
red Indians were made prisoners.

Section XVI. Although this enterprise was

successful, new dangers soon threatened the colony. Its invasion was attempted, 1707, by the French and Spaniards, in order to annex Carolina to Florida. The expedition, headed by Le Feboure, consisted of a French frigate, and four armed sloops, having about eight hundred men on board. Owing to the prompt and vigorous measures of Johnson, who had superseded Moore as governour, the enemy were repulsed, and the threatened calamity averted.

No sooner was the intended invasion rumoured abroad, than preparations were commenced to repel the enemy. The militia were mustered and trained, and the fortifications of Charleston and other places repaired. These preparations were scarcely completed, before the fleet of the enemy appeared. Some time elapsed, however, before they crossed the bar, which enabled the governour to alarm the surrounding country, and to call in great numbers of the militia.

At length, with a fair wind, the enemy passed the bar, and sent a summons to the governour to surrender. Four hours were allowed him to return his answer. But the governour informed the messenger that he did not wish one minute. On the reception of this answer, the enemy seemed to hesitate, and attempted nothing that day.

The day succeeding, a party of the enemy, landing on James Island, burnt a village by the river's side. Another party of one hundred and sixty landed at Wando Neck. The next day, both these parties were dislodged—the latter party being surprised, and nearly all killed or taken prisoners.

This success so animated the Carolinians, that it was determined to attack the enemy by sea. This was attempted with a force of six vessels under command of William Rhet, but on the appearance of Rhet, the enemy weighed anchor, and precipitately fled.

Some days succeeding this, Monsieur Arbuset appeared on the coast with a ship of force, and landed a number of men at Sewee Bay. Rhet sailed out against him, and at the same time, Capt. Fenwick crossed the river, and marched to attack the enemy by land. After a brisk engagement, Fenwick took the enemy on land, prisoners, and Rhet succeeded in capturing the ship.

Section XVII. In 1710, a large number of Palatines, inhabitants of a Palatinate, a small terri-

ory in Germany, whose governour or prince is alled a Palatine, arrived and settled on the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties, within ne boundaries of North Carolina. These were great accession to the strength and numbers of ne colony, which, although of sixty years standng, was exceedingly small.

The same year, near three thousand of the same people came New-York. Some settled in that city and built the old Luran church; others settled on Livingston's manor. Some ent into Pennsylvania, and at subsequent periods, were follow d by many thousands of their countrymen.

Two years after the above settlers arrived in Carolina, and during Queen Anne's war, a plot as laid by the Corees and Tuscaroras, with other ndian tribes, to massacre the whole number. his plot was soon so far put in execution, that ne hundred and seven settlers were butchered n their houses, in a single night. Information f their distress was speedily sent to Charleston; oon after which, Col. Barnwell, with six hunred militia and three hundred and fifty friendly ndians, explored their way through the interening wilderness, and came to their relief. On is arrival, Col. B. surprised the Tuscaroras, illed three hundred of them, and made one hunred prisoners.

The surviving Indians fled to a town which had been fortifid by the tribe; but here they were again attacked by Barnwell, ho killed great numbers of them, and compelled the remainder sue for peace. It is estimated that the Tuscaroras, in this ar, lost one thousand of their number. The remainder of the ibe, early after the war, abandoned the country, and became nited with the Five Nations, which since that time, have been lled the *Six Nations*.

Section XVIII. The next year, March 31st, 713, a treaty of peace was concluded at Utrecht, etween England and France. This relieved ne apprehensions of the northern part of the

country, and put a welcome period to an expensive and distressing war. After the peace was known in America, the eastern Indians sent in a flag and desired peace. The governour of Massachusetts, with his council, and with that of New-Hampshire, met them at Portsmouth, received their submission, and entered into terms of pacification.

By the above treaty between England and France, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were ceded to Great Britain. It was also stipulated that "the subjects of France, inhabiting Canada, and other places, shall hereafter give no hindrance or molestation to the Five Nations, nor to the other nations of Indians who are friends to Great Britain." By the treaty also, the French relinquished all claim to the Five Nations, and to all parts of their territories, and as far as respected themselves, entitled the British crown to the sovereignty of the country.

Section XIX. The termination of Queen Anne's war gave peace to the northern colonies, but the contest with the Indians for some time continued to distress the Carolinians.

Scarcely had the people recovered from the above war with the Corees and Tuscaroras, before they were threatened with a calamity still greater and more general. The Yamosees, a powerful tribe of Indians, with all the Indian tribes from Florida to Cape Fear river, formed a conspiracy for the total extirpation of the Carolinians. The 15th of April, 1715, was fixed upon as the day of general destruction.—Owing, however, to the wisdom, despatch, and firmness of Governour Craven, and the blessing of Providence, the calamity was in a measure averted, and the colonies saved, though at the expense, during the war, of near four hundred of the inhabitants. The Yamosees were expelled the province, and took refuge among the Spaniards in Florida.

Section XX. In 1719, the government of Carolina, which till now had been proprietary, was changed, the charter was declared by the king's privy council to have been forfeited, and the colony, from this time, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

The people had long been disgusted with the management of the proprietors, and were resolved, at all hazards, to execute their own laws, and defend the rights of the province. A subscription to this effect was drawn up, and generally signed.

On the meeting of the assembly, a committee was sent with this subscription to the governour, Robert Johnson, requesting him to accept the government of the province, under the king, instead of the proprietors.

Upon his refusal, the assembly chose Col. James Moore governour, under the crown, and on the 21st of December, 1719, the convention and militia marched to Charleston fort, and proclaimed Moore governour in his Majesty's name.

The Carolinians, having assumed the government, in behalf of the king, referred their complaints to the royal ear. On a full hearing of the case, the privy council adjudged that the proprietors had forfeited their charter. From this time, therefore, the colony, as stated above, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

This change was followed, in 1729, by another, nearly as important. This was an agreement between the proprietors and the crown, that the former should surrender to the crown their right and interest both to the government and soil, for the sum of seventeen thousand five hundred pounds sterling. This agreement being carried into effect, the province was divided into North and South Carolina, each province having a distinct governour under the crown of England.

Section XXI. It has been stated that peace was concluded by Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, with the eastern Indians, soon after the pacification at Utrecht, in 1713. This peace however was of short duration, dissatisfaction arising on the part of the Indians, because of the encroachments of the English on their lands, and because trading houses were not erected for the purchase of their commodities.

The governour of Massachusetts promised them redress; but the general court not carrying his stipulations into execution, the Indians became irritated, and, at the same time, being excited by the French Jesuits, were roused to war, which, in July, 1722, became general, and con-

tinued to distress the eastern settlements until 1725.

The tribes engaged in the war, were the Norridgewocks, Penobscots, St. Francois, Cape Sable, and St. John Indians. In June, 1725, hostilities ceased, soon after which a treaty was signed by the Indians, and was afterwards ratified by commissioners from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Nova Scotia. This treaty was greatly applauded, and under it, owing to the more pacifick feelings of the Indians, and the more faithful observance of its stipulations by the English, the colonies experienced unusual tranquillity for a long time.

Section XXII. The settlement of GEORGIA was begun in 1733, and was named after King George II. of England, who was then on the throne. In the settlement of Georgia, two objects were principally in view—the relief of indigent inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, and the greater security of the Carolinas.*

The charter was granted to twenty-one persons under the title of trustees, and passed the seals June 9th, 1732. The first settlers, one hundred and sixteen in number, embarked from England, in November of the same year, under General Oglethorpe. They landed at Charleston, whence they repaired to Savannah river, and commenced the town of that name.

The colony did not flourish for many years. In their regulations for its management, the trustees enacted that all lands granted by them to settlers should revert back, in case of the failure of male succession; although certain privileges were to be allowed to widows and daughters. At the same time, all trade with the Indians was prohibited, unless by virtue of special license. The use of negroes and the importation of rum were absolutely forbidden.

Although the trustees were actuated by the purest motives—by principles of humanity, and a regard to the health and morals of the inhabitants, this system of regulations was unfitted to the condition of the poor settlers, and was highly injurious to their increase and prosperity.

Emigrants, however, continued to arrive. The first adventurers being poor and unenterprising, a more active and efficient race was desirable. To induce such to settle in the colony, eleven towns were laid out in shares of fifty acres each; one of which was offered to each new settler. Upon this, large numbers of Swiss, Scotch, and Germans, became adventurers to the

lony. Within three years from the first settlement, one thou-
nd four hundred planters had arrived.

To aid the colony, parliament made several grants of money;
dividuals also gave considerable sums for the same purpose;
ving, however, to the impolitick regulations of the trustees, the
lony maintained only a feeble existence.

Section XXIII. Upon the declaration of war
y England against Spain, Oglethorpe was ap-
pinted, 1740, to the chief command in South
arolina and Georgia. Soon after his appoint-
ent, he projected an expedition against St.
ugustine. Aided by Virginia and Carolina, he
arched at the head of more than two thousand
en, for Florida, and after taking two small
panish forts, Diego and Moosa, he sat down
efore St. Augustine. Capt. Price, with seve-
l twenty gun ships, assisted by sea; but after
ll their exertions, the general was forced to raise
he siege, and return with considerable loss.

Section XXIV. Two years after, 1742, the
paniards invaded Georgia in turn. A Spanish
rmament, consisting of thirty-two sail, with three
housand men, under command of Don Manuel
e Monteano, sailed from St. Augustine, and
rrived in the river Altamaha. The expedition,
though fitted out at great expense, failed of ac-
mplishing its object.

General Oglethorpe was at this time at fort Simons. Finding
mself unable to retain possession of it, having but about seven
ndred men, he spiked his cannon, and, destroying his military
res, retreated to his head-quarters at Frederica.

On the first prospect of an invasion, general Oglethorpe had
plied to the governour of South Carolina for assistance, but
e Carolinians, fearing for the safety of their own territory, and
t approving of general Oglethorpe's management in his late
pedition against St. Augustine, declined furnishing troops, but
ted supplies.

In this state of danger and perplexity, the general resorted to
ratagem. A French soldier belonging to his army had de-
rted to the enemy. Fearing the consequences of their learn-

ing his weakness, he devised a plan by which to destroy the credit of any information that the deserter might give.

With this view, he wrote a letter to the French deserter in the Spanish camp, addressing him as if he were a spy of the English. This letter he bribed a Spanish captive to deliver, in which he directed the deserter to state to the Spaniards, that he was in a weak and defenceless condition, and to urge them on to an attack.

Should he not be able, however, to persuade them to this, he wished him to induce them to continue three days longer at their quarters, in which time, he expected two thousand men, and six British men of war, from Carolina. The above letter, as was intended, was delivered to the Spanish general, instead of the deserter, who immediately put the latter in irons.

A council of war was called, and while deliberating upon the measures which should be taken, three supply ships, which had been voted by Carolina, appeared in sight. Imagining these to be the men of war alluded to in the letter, the Spaniards, in great haste, fired the fort, and embarked, leaving behind them several cannon, and a quantity of provisions. By this artful, but unjustifiable expedient, the country was relieved of its invaders, and Georgia, and probably a great part of South Carolina, saved from ruin.

Section XXV. In 1752, the colony, continuing in a languishing condition, although parliament had at different times given them nearly one hundred thousand pounds, and many complaints having been made against the system of regulations adopted by the trustees, they surrendered their charter to the crown, upon which the government became regal. In 1755, a general court was established.

Section XXVI. March 29th, 1744, *Great Britain, under George II. declared war against France and Spain.* The most important event of this war, in America, was the capture of Louisburg, from the French, by the New-England colonies, under command of sir William Pepperell.

After the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the French had built Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, as a security to their navigation and fishery, and had fortified it at an expense of five

llions and a half of dollars. The fortifications consisted of rampart of stone, nearly thirty-six feet in height, and a ditch hty feet wide. There were six bastions, and three batteries, th embrasures for one hundred and forty-eight cannon, and mortars. On an island at the entrance of the harbour, was other battery of thirty cannon, carrying twenty-eight pounds t, and at the bottom of the harbour, opposite the entrance, as situated the royal battery of twenty-eight forty-two pound-s, and two eighteen pounders. The entrance of the town, on e land side, was at the west, over a draw-bridge, near which as a circular battery, mounting sixteen guns of twenty-four unds shot. These works had been twenty-five years in build-g, and though not entirely completed, were of such strength at the place was sometimes called the "Gibraltar of America."

The acquisition of this place was deemed eminently important to New-England, since, while in possession of the French, it had furnished a safe and convenient retreat to such privateers as disturbed and captured the inhabitants of the colonies employed in the fisheries.

Impressed with the necessity of measures to secure this fortress, overnour Shirley of Massachusetts had solicited the assistance the British ministry, for the acquisition of Cape Breton. arly in January, 1745, before receiving an answer to his let-rs to England, he communicated to the general court, under n oath of secrecy, a plan which he had formed, for an attack n Louisburg. To this plan strong objections were urged, and e proposal of the governour was at first rejected; but upon econsideration it was carried, by a majority of a single voice. irculars were immediately addressed to the colonies, as far outh as Pennsylvania, requesting their assistance, and that an mbargo might be laid on all their ports. The New-England olonies only, however, were concerned in the expedition. Of e forces raised, Massachusetts furnished three thousand two undred and fifty; Connecticut five hundred and sixteen; hode-Island and New-Hampshire, each three hundred. The aval force consisted of twelve ships and vessels. In two onths the army was enlisted, victualled, and equipped for ser ice.

On the twenty-third of March, an express boat, which had een sent to commodore Warren, in the West Indies, to invite is co-operation, returned to Boston, with advices from him, at as the contemplated expedition was a colonial affair, with-ut orders from England, he must excuse himself from any con-

cern in the enterprise. This intelligence was peculiarly unwelcome, but the governour and general concealing the tenour of the advice, the army was embarked, and the next morning the fleet sailed. On the fourth of April, the fleet and army arrived in safety at Canso, where they were joined by the troops from New-Hampshire, and soon after, by those from Connecticut.

Most unexpectedly to the general, Commodore Warren, with his fleet, arrived at Canso, having, soon after his advices by the express boat to Governour Shirley, received orders to repair to North America, and to concert measures with the Governour for his majesty's service. Hearing that the fleet had sailed for Canso, he proceeded directly for that port. Great was the joy which pervaded the whole fleet and camp, on the arrival of this important auxiliary force. After a short consultation with General Pepperell, Commodore Warren sailed to cruise before Louisburg, and, not long after, was followed by the fleet and army, which, on the thirtieth of April, arrived in Chapearouge bay. The enemy were, until this moment, in profound ignorance that any attack was meditated against them.

The sight of the transports gave the alarm to the French, and a detachment was sent to oppose the landing of the troops. But while the general diverted the attention of the enemy by a feint at one place, he was landing his men at another.

The next morning, four hundred of the English marched round behind the hills to the northeast harbour, setting fire to all the houses and stores, till they came within a mile of the royal battery. The conflagration of the stores, in which was a considerable quantity of tar, concealed the English troops, at the same time that it increased the alarm of the French so greatly that they precipitately abandoned the royal battery. Upon their flight the English took possession of it, and by means of a well directed fire from it, seriously damaged the town.

The main body of the army now commenced the siege. For fourteen nights they were occupied in drawing cannon towards the town, over a morass, in which oxen and horses could not be used. Incredible was the toil; but what could not men accomplish, who had been accustomed to draw the pines of the forest for masts? By the twentieth of May several fascine batteries had been erected, one of which mounted five forty-two pounders. On opening these batteries, they did great execution.

In the mean time Commodore Warren captured the Vigilant, a French ship of seventy-four guns, and with her five hundred and sixty men, together with great quantities of military stores. This capture was of great consequence, as it not only increased the English force and added to their military supplies, but as it seriously lessened the strength of the enemy. Shortly after this

pture, the number of the English fleet was considerably augented by the arrival of several men of war. A combined atck by sea and land was now determined on, and fixed for the hteenth of June.

Previously to the arrival of this additional naval force, much d been accomplished towards the reduction of the place. The and battery had been silenced; the western gate of the town as beaten down, and a breach effected in the wall; the circu- battery of sixteen guns was nearly ruined, and the western nk of the king's bastion was nearly demolished.

Such being the injured state of the works, and perceiving prerations making for a joint assault, to sustain which little prosct remained, on the fifteenth the enemy desired a cessation of stilities, and on the seventeenth of June, after a siege of fortyne days, the city of Louisburg, and the island of Cape Breton, re surrendered to his Britannick majesty.

Thus successfully terminated a daring expedition, which had en undertaken without the knowledge of the mother country. ne acquisition of the fortress of Louisburg was as useful and portant to the colonies, and to the British empire, as its reducn was surprising to that empire and mortifying to the court of rance.

Besides the stores and prizes which fell into the hands of the nglish, which were estimated at little less than a million ster.g, security was given to the colonies in their fisheries; Nova otia was preserved, and the trade and fisheries of France arly ruined.

Section XXVII. The capture of Louisburg used the court of France to seek revenge. nder the duke D'Anville, a nobleman of great urage, an armament was sent to America, 746, consisting of forty ships of war, fifty-six ansports, with three thousand five hundred en, and forty thousand stands of arms for the se of the French and Indians in Canada. The ject of this expedition was to recover possesn of Cape Breton, and to attack the colonies. merciful Providence, however, averted the ow, and by delaying the fleet, and afterwards sabling it in a storm, blasted the hopes of the emy.

Great was the consternation of the colonies, when the news

arrived that the French fleet was near the American coast, and greatly increased, on learning that no English fleet was in quest of it.

Several ships of this formidable French fleet were damaged by storms; others were lost, and one forced to return to Brest, on account of a malignant disease among her crew. Two on three only of the ships, with a few of the transports, arrived at Chebucto, now Halifax. Here the admiral died, through mortification; or, as some say, by poison. The vice-admiral came to a similar tragical death by running himself through the body. That part of the fleet that arrived sailed with a view to attack Annapolis, but a storm scattered them, and prevented the accomplishment of this object.

Section XVIII. In April, 1748, preliminaries of peace were signed between France and England, at Aix la Chapelle, soon after which, hostilities ceased. The definitive treaty was signed in October. Prisoners on all sides were to be released without ransom, and all conquests made during the war were to be mutually restored.

Notes.

Section XXIX. **Manners of the Colonists.** The colonies were now peopled with inhabitants, by far the greater part of whom were born and educated in America. And although the first settlers were collected from most or all, the countries of Europe, and emigrants from various nations continued to flock to America, still we may observe, during this period, a gradual assimilation of national manners and character. The peculiarities of each class became less distinct by intercourse with the others, and every succeeding generation seemed to exhibit, less strikingly, those traits which distinguished the preceding.

Although this is true with respect to the American colonies

nerally there were some exceptions. Some villages, or territies, being settled exclusively by emigrants speaking a different language from that generally spoken—as the Germans, example—or entertaining some peculiar religious notions—the Quakers—still preserved their own peculiar manners.

But in attempting to ascribe some general character to the ople of the colonies during this period, we might consider m, as during our second period, on the whole, exhibiting ee varieties; viz. the rigid puritan English of the north—Dutch in New-York—and the luxurious English of the th. The austerity of the north was, however, much relaxed. e elegant varieties of life, which before had been prohibited, re tolerated, and the refinements of polished society appeared ong the higher classes. The strong lines of Dutch manners New-York were slowly disappearing, under an English gonment, and by means of the settlement of English among m. The manners of the south were assuming an aspect of re refinement, particularly among the higher classes—but wed little other change.

Section XXX. **Religion.** During this period, the spirit of religious bigotry and intolence may be observed to have abated in a very nsiderable degree. The conduct of those cts, which had called forth those severe and justifiable restrictions upon the freedom of ligious worship, had become less offensive and ceptionable; and at the close of this period, ligious persecution had ceased in all the colones, and the rights of conscience were generalrecognized.

In 1692, the *Mennonites* were introduced into Pennsylvania, d settled at Germantown. Their increase, however, has been all.

In 1719, the *Tunkers*, or General Baptists, arrived at Philalphia, and dispersed themselves into several parts of Pennsylnia:

In 1741, the *Moravians* were introduced into America by ount Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. egularity, industry, ingenuity, and economy, are characteristick this people. They have considerably increased, and are a spectable body of Christians.

The *German Lutherans* were first introduced into the Ame-

rican colonies, during this period, and settled principally in Pennsylvania and New-York.

Episcopacy was considerably extended during this period. In 1693, it was introduced into New-York; into New-Jersey and Rhode-Island in 1702; into South Carolina in 1703, by law; in Connecticut in 1704.

In 1708, the Saybrook Platform was formed by a Synod, composed of congregational ministers, under authority of the legislature of Connecticut.

About the year 1737, a revival of religion very extensively prevailed in New-England. At this time, great numbers united themselves to the church, and testified by their conduct through life the genuineness of their profession.

The celebrated Whitfield came to America about the year 1740, and produced great religious excitement by his singular powers of pulpit eloquence. He did not found any peculiar sect in this country, although he gave rise to that of the *Calvinistick Methodists* in England.

Section XXXI. Trade and Commerce.

Although the trade of the colonies began to feel the restrictions imposed upon it by the mother country, still it steadily increased during this period.

From the very commencement of the colonies, the mother country was not without her jealousies respecting their increase in population, trade, and manufactures. Inquiries on these points were instituted, and opportunities sought to keep in check the spirit of colonial enterprise. Laws were enacted from time to time, designed and calculated not only to make the colonies depend on the mother country for her manufactures, but also to limit their trade and commerce, and keep them in safe subjection to England.

As illustrating this course of policy, we may notice several laws of parliament. In 1732, an act was passed, prohibiting "the exportation of hats out of the plantations of America, and to restrain the number of apprentices taken by hat makers." So also the act of 1750, prohibited, on penalty of two hundred pounds, "the erection of any mill for slitting, or rolling of iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer; or any furnace for making steel in any of the colonies." At the same time, encouragement was given to export *pig* and *bar* iron to England for her manufactories. In like manner was prohibited the exportation from one province to another by water, and even the carriage by land, on horseback, or in a cart, of all wools and

oolen goods of the produce of America. The colonies were lso compelled by law to procure many articles from England, hich they could have purchased twenty per cent. cheaper in ther markets.

But notwithstanding these restrictions, trade and commerce adually and steadily increased. To England, the colonies ported lumber of all sorts, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, oil, rosin, pper ore, pig and bar iron, whale fins, tobacco, rice, fish, in go, flax seed, beeswax, raw silk, &c. They also built many ssels which were sold in the mother country.

But the importation of goods from England, in consequence the course pursued by the British government, was still much eater than the amount of exports to England. In 1728, sir illiam Keith stated that the colonies then consumed one sixth rt of all the woolen manufactures exported from Great Britain, d more than double that value in linen and calicoes; also eat quantities of English manufactured silks, small wares, usehold furniture, trinkets, and a very considerable value in ast India goods. From 1739 to 1756, this importation of ods from England amounted to one million of pounds sterling nually, on an average.

But, if the amount of imports from Great Britain was thus ore than the colonies exported thither, they would fall in debt England. How did they pay this balance of trade against em? It was done by gold and silver obtained chiefly from the est India settlements, to which they exported lumber, fish of inferior quality, beef, pork, butter, horses, poultry, and other ve stock, an inferior kind of tobacco, corn, cider, apples, cab-ges, onions, &c. They built also many small vessels, which und a ready market.

The cod and whale fisheries were becoming considerable; ey were principally carried on by New-England. The cod-sh were sold in Spain, France, England, the West-Indies, &c.; d the money obtained for them aided the colonies in paying e balance of trade against them in England.

Section XXXII. **Agriculture.** Agriculture, uring this period, was greatly improved and ex-nded. Immense tracts of forests were cleared, nd more enlightened modes of husbandry were troduced. The number of articles produced y agriculture was also increased.

The colonies now not only raised a sufficient supply of food r their own use, but their exports became great. Wheat and ther English grain were the principal products of the middle

colonies; grain, beef, pork, horses, butter, cheese, &c. were the chief products of the northern colonies; tobacco, wheat, and rice, were the principal products of the south.

In the south, also, large numbers of swine ran wild in the forests, living upon mast. These were taken, salted down, and exported to a considerable extent.

Section XXXIII. **Arts and Manufactures.** Under the head of commerce, we have noticed the obstacles interposed by Great Britain, to the progress of arts and manufactures. Notwithstanding these, however, the coarser kinds of cutlery, some coarse cloths, both linen and woollen, hats, paper, shoes, household furniture, farming utensils, &c. were manufactured to a considerable extent; not sufficient, however, to supply the inhabitants. All these manufactories were on a small scale; cloths were made, in some families, for their own consumption.

The art of printing made considerable progress, during this period. A newspaper, the first in North America, called *The Boston Weekly News-Letter*, was established in 1704. Before the close of this period, ten others were established—four in New-England; two in New-York; two in Pennsylvania; one in South Carolina; and one in Maryland. The number of books published was also considerable, although they were executed in a coarse style, and were generally books of devotion, or for the purposes of education.

Section XXXIV. **Population.** At the expiration of our second period, we estimated the population of the English colonies in America at 200,000 souls. About the close of our third period, Franklin calculated that there were then one million or upwards, and that scarce 80,000 had been brought over sea.

This estimate of the population of America very nearly accords with an estimate made in London from "authentick authorities," May 1755, which is as follows:

w-Hampshire,	30,000	New-York,	100,000
ssachusetts Bay,	220,000	The Jerseys,	60,000
Island, and Provi- dence Plantations,	35,000	Pennsylvania,	250,000
nnecticut,	100,000	Maryland,	85,000
		Virginia,	85,000
w-England,	385,000	North Carolina,	45,000
d. and S. Colonies,	661,000	South Carolina,	30,000
		Georgia,	6,000
Total,	1,046,000		661,000

Section XXXV. **Education.** The southern colonies continued to treat the subject of education differently from the northern colonies, in this respect; in the north, one of the first objects of legislation was to provide for the education of *all classes;* in the south, the education of the higher classes only was an object of publick attention.

The first publick institution for the purposes of education, which succeeded in the south, was that of William and Mary College in Virginia, established in 1692, by the sovereigns whose names it bears.

Yale College, in Connecticut, was commenced in 1700—seven of the principal ministers of the neighbouring towns, who had been appointed to adopt such measures as they should deem expedient, on the subject of a college—agreeing to found one in the colony. The next year, the legislature granted them a charter. The college was begun at Saybrook, where was held the first commencement, in 1702. In 1717, it was removed to New-Haven, where it became permanently established. It was named after the Hon. Elihu Yale, governour of the East India company, who was its principal benefactor.

The College, at Princeton, New-Jersey, called "Nassau Hall," was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq. president of the council, about the year 1738, and was enlarged by Gov. Belcher, in 1747.

Reflections.

XXXVI. The history of this period presents the North American Colonies to our view, at the same time that they were visited with cruel and desolating wars, still advancing in popula-

tion, extending their commerce, forming new settlements, enlarging the boundaries of their territory, and laying wider and deeper the foundations of a future nation. And, while we look back, with admiration, upon the hardy spirit which carried our ancestors through scenes so trying, and enabled them to reap prosperity from the crimsoned fields of battle and bloodshed, let us be thankful that our lot is cast in a happier day; and that instead of sharing in the perils of feeble colonies, we enjoy the protection and privileges of a free and powerful nation.

In addition to the reflections subjoined to the account which we have given of the "Salem witchcraft," we may add another, respecting the danger of *popular delusion*. In that portion of our history, we see a kind of madness rising up, and soon stretching its influence over a whole community. And such too is the pervading power of the spell, that the wise and ignorant, the good and bad, are alike subject to its control, and for the time, alike incapable of judging, or reasoning aright. Now, whenever we see a community divided into parties, and agitated by some general excitement—when we feel ourselves borne along on one side or the other, by the popular tide, let us inquire whether we are not acting under the influence of a delusion, which a few years, perhaps a few months, or days, may dispel and expose.—Nor, at such a time, let us regard our sincerity, or our consciousness of integrity, or the seeming clearness and certainty of our reasonings, as furnishing an absolute assurance that, after all, we do not mistake, and that our opponents are not right.

Another reflection of some importance, and one that may serve to guard us against censuring, too severely, the wise and good, is suggested by this account of the "Salem witchcraft." It is, that the best men are liable to err. We should not, therefore, condemn, nor should we withhold our charity from those who fall into occasional errour, provided their characters are in other respects, such as lay claim to our good opinion.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

1755.

HARTFORD.

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

UNITED STATES.

Period IV.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

Extending from the Declaration of England against France, 1756, *to the Commencement of Hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies*, 1775.

Section I. The war, which ended in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, had been highly injurious to the general prosperity of his Majesty's colonies in America; and the return of peace found them in a state of impoverishment and distress. Great losses had been sustained in their commerce, and many of their vessels had been seized on the coast by privateers. Bills of credit to the amount of several millions, had been issued to carry on the war, which they were now unable to redeem, and the losses of men in various expeditions against the enemy, had seriously retarded the increase of population.

The expenses of the northern colonies, including New-England and New-York, during the war, were estimated at not less than one million pounds sterling. Massachusetts alone is said to have paid half this sum, and to have expended nearly four hundred thousand pounds, in the expedition against Cape Breton. The expenses of Carolina, for the war in that quarter, were not less in proportion.

To supply the deficiency of money, bills of credit were issued to the amount of several millions. The bills issued by Massachusetts, during two or three years of the war, amounted to between two and three millions currency; while at the time of

their emission, five or six hundred pounds were equal t
one hundred pounds sterling. Before the complete reder
of these bills, says Dr. Trumbull, in those colonies, wher
credit was best supported, the depreciation was nearly t
for one.

The losses sustained by the colonies, in the fall of ma
their bravest men, during this and the last Indian war, we
verely felt. From 1722 to 1749, a period of twenty-seven
the losses of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire equalle
crease of their numbers, whereas, in the natural
n, their numbers would have more than double

few words, was the general stat
, at the close of this war. The
was hailed as the harbinger of
the enterprising spirit of the
rted itself to repair the losses w
sustained. Commerce, there
ourished; population increased; sett
s were extended; and publick credit revi

Section II. Scarcely, however, had the c
nies time to reap the benefits of peace, bef
the prospect was clouded, and the sound of
proaching war filled the land with general a
iety and distress. After an interval of only ab
eight years, from 1748 to May 18th 1756, Gr
Britain, under George II. formally declared
against France, which declaration was recip
cated on the ninth of June, by a similar decla
tion on the part of France, under Louis X
against Great Britain.

The *general* cause, leading to this war, co
monly called the "*French and Indian Wa*
was the alleged encroachments of the Fren
upon the frontiers of the colonies in Amer
belonging to the English Crown.

These encroachments were made upon Nova Scotia in
east, which had been ceded to Great Britain, by the 12th ar
of the treaty of Utrecht, but to a considerable part of which
French laid claim, and, in several places, were erecting fo

ons. In the north and west, they were settling and fortify-
Crown Point, and, in the west, were not only attempting to
plete a line of forts from the head of the St. Lawrence to
Mississippi, but were encroaching far on Virginia.

The circumstance which served to open the
r, was the alleged intrusion of the *Ohio Com-*
ny upon the territory of the French. This
npany consisted of a number of influential men,
m London and Virginia, who had obtained a
rter grant of six hundred thousand acres of
d, on and near the river Ohio, for the purpose
carrying on the fur trade with the Indians,
l of settling the country.

The governour of Canada had early intelli-
ace of the transactions of this company. Fear-
that their plan would deprive the French of
advantages of the fur trade, and prevent
mmunications between Canada and Louisiana,
wrote to the governour of New-York and
nnsylvania, claiming the country east of the
io to the Alleghanies, and forbidding the
ther encroachments of the English traders.

s yet, the Pennsylvanians had principally managed the trade
the Indians. But, being now about to be deprived of it,
he Ohio Company, who were opening a road to the Poto-
, they excited the fears of the Indians, lest their lands should
aken from them, and gave early intelligence to the French,
e designs and transactions of the Company.
he French governour soon manifested his hostile determina-
on, by seizing several of the English traders, and carrying
to a French port on the south of Lake Erie.—The Twight-
, a tribe of Indians in Ohio, near Miami river, among
m the English had been trading, resented the seizure, and,
ay of retaliation, took several French traders, and sent them
ennsylvania.

n the mean time, a communication was open-
along the French Creek and Alleghany ri-
, between Fort Presqu' Ile, on Lake Erie,
l the Ohio; and French troops were station-

ed at convenient distances, secured by tempo-
rary fortifications.

The Ohio Company, thus threatened with the
destruction of their trade, were now loud in their
complaints. Dinwiddie, lieut. governour of Vir-
ginia, to whom these complaints were addressed,
laid the subject before the assembly, which or-
dered a messenger to be despatched to the French
commandant on the Ohio, to demand the reasons
of his hostile conduct, and to summon the French
to evacuate their forts in that region

Section III. The person entrusted with this
service was *George Washington*, who at the
early age of twenty-one, thus stepped forth in
the publick cause, and began that line of servi-
ces, which ended in the independence of his
country.

The service to which Washington was now
appointed, was both difficult and dangerous; the
place of his destination being above four hun-
dred miles distant, two hundred of which lay
through a trackless desert inhabited by Indians.
He arrived in safety, however, and delivered a
letter from Gov. Dinwiddie to the commandant.
Having received a written answer, and secretly
taken the dimensions of the fort, he returned.
The reply of the commandant to Gov. Dinwiddie
was, that he had taken possession of the country
under the direction of the governour-general of
Canada, to whom he would transmit his letter,
and whose orders only he would obey.

Section IV. The British ministry, on being
made acquainted with the claims, conduct, and
determination of the French, without a formal
declaration of war, instructed the Virginians to
resist their encroachments, by force of arms;

cordingly a regiment was raised in Virginia, ich was joined by an independent company m South Carolina, and with this force, Wash- ton, who was appointed to command the ex- dition, and was now raised from the rank of jor to that of colonel, marched early in April, 54, towards the Great Meadows, lying within disputed territories, for the purpose of expel- g the French. The enterprise of Washing- and his troops was highly creditable to them, the French forces being considerably supe- r, he was obliged to capitulate, with the pri- ege, however, of returning with his troops to ginia.

n his arrival at the Great Meadows, he learned that the nch had dispossessed some Virginians of a fortification, ch the latter were erecting for the Ohio Company, at the luence of the Alleghany and Monongahela, and were en- d in completing it, for their own use. He also learned, a detachment from that place, then on its march towards Great Meadows, had encamped for the night, in a low and ed situation.

nder the guidance of some friendly Indians, and under co- of a dark and rainy night, this party he surprised and cap- l. Having erected, at the Great Meadows, a small stock- fort, afterwards called Fort Necessity, he proceeded with his os, reinforced by troops from New-York, and others from h Carolina, to nearly four hundred men, towards the French Du Quesne, now Pittsburg, with the intention of dislodging enemy. Hearing, however, that the enemy were approach- he judged it prudent to retire to Fort Necessity. Here the ny, one thousand five hundred strong, under the command l. de Villiers, soon appeared and commenced a furious at- on the fort. After an engagement of several hours, de ers demanded a parley, and offered terms of capitulation. se terms were rejected; but during the night, July 4th, ar- s were signed, by which Washington was permitted, upon endering the fort, to march with his troops, unmolested, to inia.

Such was the beginning of open hostilities, ich were succeeded by a series of other hos-

tilities characterised by the spirit and manner of war, although the formal declaration of war was not made until 1756, two years after, as already mentioned.

Section V. The British ministry, perceiving war to be inevitable, recommended to the British colonies in America, to unite in some scheme for their common defence. Accordingly, a convention of delegates from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, with the lieut. governour and council of New-York, was held at Albany, this year, 1754, and a plan of union adopted, resembling, in several of its features, the present constitution of the United States.

But the plan met with the approbation, neither of the Provincial Assemblies, nor the King's Council. By the former, it was rejected, because it gave too much power to the crown, and by the latter, because it gave too much power to the people.

According to this plan, a grand council was to be formed of members chosen by the provincial assemblies, and sent from all the colonies; which council, with a governour general, appointed by the crown, and having a negative voice, should be empowered to make general laws, to raise money in all the colonies for their defence, to call forth troops, regulate trade, lay duties, &c. &c.

The plan, thus matured, was approved and signed, on the fourth of July, the day that Washington surrendered Fort Necessity, and twenty-two years before the declaration of Independence, by all the delegates, excepting those from Connecticut, who objected to the negative voice of the governour general.

One circumstance, in the history of this plan, deserves here to be recorded, as evincing the dawning spirit of the revolution. Although the plan was rejected by the provincial assemblies, they declared, without reserve, that if it were adopted, they would undertake to defend themselves from the French, without any assistance from Great Britain. They required, but to be

to employ their supplies in their own way, to effect their se-
ty and predominance.

he mother country was too jealous to trust such powers
the Americans, but she proposed another plan, designed to
a foundation for the perpetual dependence and slavery of the
nies. This plan was, that the governours, with one, or
e of their council, should form a convention to concert mea-
s for the general defence, to erect fortifications, raise men,
&c. with power to draw upon the British treasury, to defray
charges; which charges should be reimbursed *by taxes upon colonies, imposed by acts of parliament.* But to allow the
ish government the right of taxation—to lay the colonies
er the obligations of a debt to be thus liquidated—to subject
nselves to the rapacity of king's collectors, we scarcely need
was a proposal which met with universal disapprobation.

Section VI. Early in the spring of 1755, pre-
rations were made, by the colonies, for vigor-
s exertions against the enemy. Four expedi-
ns were planned. *One* against the French
Nova Scotia; a *second* against the French on
Ohio; a *third* against Crown Point; and a
rth against Niagara.

Section VII. The expedition against *Nova Sco-*
, consisting of three thousand men, chiefly from
ssachusetts, was led by gen. Monckton and
. Winslow. With these troops, they sailed
m Boston, May 20th, and on the 1st of June,
ived at Chignecto, on the bay of Fundy. After
ng joined by three hundred British troops and a
all train of artillery, they proceeded against
t Beau Sejour, which, after four days invest-
nt, surrendered. The name of the fort was
v changed to that of Cumberland. From this
ce Gen. Monckton proceeded further into the
ntry, took the other forts in possession of the
nch, and disarmed the inhabitants. By this
cessful expedition, the English possessed
mselves of the whole country of Nova Scotia,
art of which, as already noticed, the French

claimed; its tranquillity was restored and placed upon a permanent basis.

In this whole expedition, the English took but twenty men. Large quantities of provisions and military stores fell into their hands, with a number of valuable cannon.

The French force in Nova Scotia being subdued, a difficult question occurred, respecting the disposal to be made of the inhabitants. Fearing that they might join the French in Canada whom they had before furnished with intelligence, quarters, and provisions, it was determined to disperse them among the English colonies. Under this order, one thousand nine hundred were thus dispersed.

Section VIII. The expedition against the French, *on the Ohio*, was led by Gen. Braddock, a British officer, who commenced his march from Virginia, in June, with about two thousand men. Apprehensive that Fort du Quesne, against which he was proceeding, might be reinforced, Braddock, with one thousand two hundred selected troops, hastened his march, leaving Col. Dunbar to follow more slowly, with the other troops and the heavy baggage.

On the 8th of July, Braddock had advanced sixty miles forward of Col. Dunbar, and within twelve or fourteen miles of Fort du Quesne. Here he was advised by his officers to proceed with caution, and was earnestly entreated by Col. Washington, his aid, to permit him to precede the army, and guard against suprise. Too haughty and self-confident to receive advice, Braddock, without any knowledge of the condition of the enemy, continued to press towards the fort. About twelve o'clock, July 9th, when within seven miles of the fort, he was suddenly attacked by a body of French and Indians. Although the enemy did not exceed five hundred, yet, after an action of three hours, Braddock, under whom five horses had been killed, was mor-

ly wounded, and his troops defeated. The s of the English army was sixty-four out of ty-five officers, and about one half of the pri- es.

his unfortunate defeat of Gen. Braddock is to be ascribed is imprudence, and too daring intrepidity. Had he attended ose precautions which were recommended to him, he would have been thus ambuscaded; or had he wisely retreated from ncealed enemy, and scoured the thicket with his cannon, melancholy catastrophe might have been avoided. But, ob- tely riveted to the spot on which he was first attacked, he ly continued his attempt to form his men in regular order, ough, by this means, a surer prey to the enemy, until being self wounded, he could no longer be accessary to the de- tion of human life.

remarkable fact in the history of this affair remains to be Gen. Braddock held the *provincial* troops in great con- pt. Consequently, he kept the Virginians, and other pro- ials, who were in the action, in the rear. Yet, although lly exposed with the rest, far from being affected with the that disordered the regular troops, they stood firm and un- en, and, under Col. Washington, covered the retreat of the lars, and saved them from total destruction.

he retreat of the army, after Braddock was wounded, was ipitate. No pause was made until the rear division was met. division on its junction with the other, was seized with ame spirit of flight with the retreating, and both divisions eeded to Fort Cumberland, a distance of nearly one hun- and twenty miles from the place of action.

ad the troops, even here, recovered their spirits and return- uccess might still have crowned the expedition. At least, rmy might have rendered the most important service to the e, by preventing the devastations and inhuman murders, etrated by the French and Indians, during the summer, on estern borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania. But, instead dopting a course so salutary and important, Col. Dunbar, ng the sick and wounded at Cumberland, marched with his s to Philadelphia.

ection IX. The expedition against *Crown nt* was led by Gen. William Johnson, a mem- of the council of New-York, and although it ed as to its main object, yet its results diffused tation through the American colonies, and

dispelled the gloom which followed Braddock's defeat.

The army, under Johnson, arrived at the south end of Lake George, the latter part of August. While here, intelligence was received that a body of the enemy, two thousand in number, had landed at Southbay, now *Whitehall*, under command of Baron Dieskau, and were marching towards Fort Edward, for the purpose of destroying the provisions and military stores there.

At a council of war, held on the morning of Sept. 8th, it was resolved to detach a party to intercept the French, and save the fort. This party consisted of twelve hundred men, commanded by Col. Ephraim Williams of Deerfield, Massachusetts. Unfortunately, this detachment was surprised by Dieskau, who was lying in ambush for them. After a most signal slaughter, in which Col. Williams and Hendrick, a renowned Mohawk sachem, and many other officers fell, the detachment was obliged to retreat.

The firing was heard in the camp of Johnson, and as it seemed to approach nearer and nearer, it was naturally conjectured that the English troops were repulsed. The best preparations which the time allowed, were made to receive the advancing foe. Dieskau, with his troops, soon appeared and commenced a spirited attack. They were received, however, with so much intrepidity—the cannon and musquetry did so much execution among their ranks, that the enemy retired in great disorder, having experienced a signal defeat. The loss of the French was not less than eight hundred, Dieskau estimated them himself at one thousand, and this loss was rendered still more severe to the French, by a mor-

wound which this distinguished officer him-
lf received, and in consequence of which he fell
o the hands of the English. The loss of the
nglish did not much exceed two hundred.

Few events of no greater magnitude leave
onger impressions than resulted from the bat-
of Lake George. Following as it did the
comfiture of Braddock, it served to restore the
nour of the British arms, and the tone of the
blick mind.

At the time it was meditated to send a detachmant under
. Williams, to intercept Dieskau, the number of men propos-
was mentioned to Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, and his opi-
n asked. He replied, "If they are to fight, they are too few.
hey are to be killed, they are too many." The number was
ordingly increased. Gen. Johnson proposed also to divide
detachment into three parties. Upon this Hendrick took
e sticks, and putting them together, said to him, "Put these
ether, and you cannot break them; take them one by one,
you will break them easily." The hint succeeded, and
ndrick's sticks saved many of the party, and probably the
ole army from destruction.*

Early in the action, Gen. Johnson was wounded, and Gen.
man succeeded to the command, which he held through the
. To this gentleman's gallant exertions, the success of the
, under Providence, was chiefly to be ascribed. Yet it is
arkable, that Gen. Johnson made no mention of Gen. Ly-
n in his official letter, announcing the intelligence of the
tory. The ambition of Johnson was too great, and his ava-
too greedy, to acknowledge the merits of a rival. Gen.
nson was created a baronet, and parliament voted him five
usand pounds sterling, in consideration of his success. The
ard of Gen. Lyman was the esteem and honour of the peo-
among whom he lived.

Among the wounded of the French, as already stated, was
Baron Dieskau. He had received a ball through his leg,
being unable to follow his retreating army, was found by
English soldier, resting upon the stump of a tree, with
rcely an attendant. Dieskau, apprehensive for his safety,
s feeling for his watch, in order to give it to the soldier, when

* Dwight's Travels.

the man, suspecting that he was feeling for a pistol, levelled his gun, and wounded him in the hips. He was carried to the camp, and treated with great kindness. From the camp he was taken to Albany and New-York, whence, some time after, he sailed for England, where he died. He was a superior officer, possessed of honourable feelings, and adorned with highly polished manners. One stain, however, attaches to his character. Before his engagement with Col. Williams' corps, he gave orders to his troops neither to give nor take quarter.

Section X. The expedition against *Niagara* was committed to Gov. Shirley of Massachusetts, whose force amounted to two thousand five hundred men. But the season was too far advanced, before his preparations were completed, to effect any thing of importance.—After proceeding to Oswego, on Lake Ontario, the army being poorly supplied with provisions, and the rainy season approaching, the expedition was abandoned, and the troops returned to Albany. Thus ended the campaign of 1755.

Section XI. In the spring of the ensuing year, 1756, Gov. Shirley was succeeded by Gen. Abercrombie, who was appointed to command, until the arrival of the earl of Loudon, commander in chief of all his majesty's forces in America.

The hostilities of the two preceding years had been carried on without any formal proclamation of war; but this year, June 9th, as already stated, war was declared by Great Britain against France, and soon after, by France against Great Britain, in turn.

The plan of operations for the campaign of '56 embraced the attack of *Niagara* and *Crown Point*, which were still in possession of the French. Both these places were of great importance; the former being the connecting link in the line of fortifications between Canada and Louisiana; and the latter commanding Lake

amplain, and guarding the only passage, at
t time, into Canada. But important as were
se posts, the reduction of neither was this year
omplished, nor even attempted, owing, chiefly,
he great delays of those who held the chief
mmand.

roops were raised for the expedition against Crown Point,
unting to seven thousand, the command of whom was assign-
o major-general Winslow, of Massachusetts. But his march
delayed by obstacles ascribed to the improvidence of Aber-
bie.

After the mortal wound received by Dieskau,
he battle of Lake George, the Marquis de
ntcalm, an able and enterprising officer, suc-
ded to the command of the French forces.
he month of August, this officer, with eight
usand regulars, Canadians and Indians, in-
ted the fort at Oswego, on the south side of
ke Ontario,—one of the most important posts
d by the English in America,—and in a few
s took it. On the receipt of this intelligence,
d Loudon, who had arrived in Albany, and
ered upon the command, despatched orders
Gen. Winslow, on his march towards Crown
nt, not to proceed.

he fall of the fort at Oswego was most unfortunate for the
lish, and their loss of men made prisoners, and munitions
ar, peculiarly severe. By the capture of this post, the ene-
obtained the entire command of the lakes Ontario and Erie,
of the whole country of the Five Nations. Sixteen hundred
were made prisoners, and one hundred and twenty pieces
nnon were taken, with fourteen mortars, two sloops of war,
two hundred boats and batteaux.

After this disastrous event, all offensive opera-
ns were immediately relinquished, although
vas then three months to the time of the usual
ampment of the army. Thus through the
ctivity of a man, whose leading trait was *in-*
ision, not one object of the campaign was

gained, nor one purpose accomplished, either honourable or important.

Section XII. Notwithstanding the failure of the campaign of this season, the British Parliament made great preparations to prosecute the war the succeeding year, 1757. In July, an armament of eleven ships of the line and fifty transports, with more than six thousand troops, arrived at Halifax, destined for the reduction of Louisburg.—The colonies had been raising men for an expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Great was their mortification and disappointment, when they learned from the orders of lord Loudon, that these troops were to be employed against Louisburg. Such inconstancy and fluctuation appeared beneath the dignity of the commander in chief. But they were obliged to submit, and lord Loudon proceeded to join the armament at Halifax.

So dilatory were their measures, however, that before they were ready to sail, Louisburg was reinforced by a fleet of seventeen sail, and with troops to make it nine thousand strong. On the reception of this intelligence, it was deemed inexpedient to proceed, and the expedition was abandoned.

Section XIII. While weakness and indecision were marking the counsels of the English, the French continued to urge on their victories. Montcalm, still commander of the French in the north, finding the troops withdrawn from Halifax, for the reduction of Louisburg, seized the occasion to make a descent on Fort William Henry, situated on the north shore of Lake George. The garrison of the fort consisted of three thousand men. With a force of nine thou-

ıd men, Montcalm laid siege to it.—After a lant defence of six days, the garrison surren-ed, thus giving to Montcalm the command of lake, and of the western frontier.

he spirited and protracted defence of the fort, against such ibers, reflects the highest honour upon its brave commander, . Munroe. Six days was the enemy kept at bay, with una-d resolution, in full expectation of assistance from Gen. bb, who lay at Fort Edward, only fifteen miles distant, with rmy of four thousand men.

he character of Gen. Webb continues sullied, by his unpar-able indifference to the perilous situation of his brethren in s, at Fort William Henry. It deserves to be known that William Johnson, after very importunate solicitations, ob-ed leave of General Webb to march with as many as would nteer in the service, to the relief of Munroe.

t the beat of the drums, the provincials, almost to a man, ed forth, and were soon ready and eager for the march. Af-being under arms almost all day, what were their feelings n Sir William, returning from head-quarters, informed them General Webb had forbidden them to march!

he soldiers were inexpressibly mortified and enraged,—and r commander did himself no common honour in the tears he l, as he turned from his troops, and retired to his tent.

he defence of Fort William Henry was so gallant, that Col. nroe, with his troops, was admitted to an honourable capitu-on. The capitulation, however, was most shamefully broken. ile the troops were marching out at the gate of the fort, the ans attached to Montcalm's party, dragged the men from r ranks, and with all the inhumanity of savage feeling, plun-d them of their baggage, and butchered them in cold blood. of a New-Hampshire corps of two hundred, eighty were ing.

is said that efforts were made by the French to restrain the barians, but the truth of the assertion may well be doubted, n it is considered that Montcalm's force was at least seven sand French, and yet these barbarians were not restrained.

Section XIV. In 1758, most fortunately for honour of the British arms, and for the sal-ion of the colonies, a change took place in the nistry of England. The celebrated Pitt, lord atham, now placed at the head of the admi-tration, breathed a new soul into the British

councils, and revived the energies of the colonies, weakened and exhausted by a series of ill contrived and unfortunate expeditions. The tide of success now turned in favour of the English, who continued, with some few exceptions, to achieve one victory after another, until the whole of Canada surrendered to the British arms.

Pitt, upon coming into office, addressed a circular to the colonial governours, in which he assured them of the determination of the ministry to send a large force to America, and called upon them to raise as many troops, as the number of inhabitants would allow. The colonies were prompt and liberal in furnishing the requisite supplies. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New-Hampshire, unitedly, raised fifteen thousand men, who were ready to take the field in May.

Section XV. Three expeditions were proposed—the *first* against Louisburg; the *second* against Ticonderoga; the *third* against Fort Du Quesne.*

Section XVI. On the expedition against *Louisburg*, admiral Boscawen sailed from Halifax, May 28th, with a fleet of twenty ships of the line, eighteen frigates, and an army of fourteen thousand men, under the command of brigadier Gen. Amherst, next to whom in command was Gen. Wolfe. On the 26th of July, after a vigorous resistance, this fortress was surrendered, and with it five thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven prisoners of war, and one hundred and twenty cannon, besides which the enemy lost five ships of the line and four frigates. At the

* Pronounced Du-Kane.

ne time, Isle Royal, St. Johns, with Cape Bre-
, fell into the hands of the English, who now
came masters of the coast from St. Lawrence
Nova Scotia.

The surrender of this fortress was a more signal loss to France
any which she had sustained since the commencement of
war. It greatly obstructed her communications with Cana-
and was powerfully instrumental in hastening the subjuga-
of that country to the British crown.

Section XVII. The expedition against *Ticon-
oga* was conducted by Gen. Abercrombie,
mmander in chief in America, lord Loudon
ving returned to England. An army of six-
n thousand men, nine thousand of whom were
vincials, followed his standard, besides a for-
dable train of artillery.

Having passed Lake George, the army pro-
ded with great difficulty towards the fortress.
fortunately, Gen. Abercrombie trusted to
ers, who were incompetent to the task, to re-
noitre the ground and entrenchments of the
emy, and, without a knowledge of the strength
the places, or of the proper points of attack,
ued his orders to attempt the lines without
nging up a single piece of artillery.

The army advanced to the charge with the
atest intrepidity, and for more than four
urs maintained the attack with incredible ob-
nacy.

After the loss of nearly two thousand in killed
l wounded the troops were summoned away.
e retreat was as unhappy as the attack had been
cipitate and ill advised. Not a doubt can ra-
nally exist, that had the siege been prosecuted
h prudence and vigour, the reduction of the
ce would have been easily accomplished,
hout so great a waste of human life, as the

garrison amounted to but little more than three thousand men.

The passage of Abercrombie, across Lake George on his way with his army to Ticonderoga, was effected by means of one thousand and thirty-five boats. The splendour of the military parade on the occasion was eminently imposing, and deserves to be recorded. A late writer, Dr. Dwight, thus describes it.

"The morning was remarkably bright and beautiful; and the fleet moved with exact regularity to the sound of fine martial musick. The ensigns waved and glittered in the sun-beams, and the anticipation of future triumph shone in every eye. Above, beneath, around, the scenery was that of enchantment. Rarely has the sun, since that luminary was first lighted up in the heavens, dawned on such a complication of beauty and magnificence." How greatly did all the parade which was displayed, and all the anticipation which was indulged, add to the mortification of the defeat which followed!

After his repulse, Gen. Abercrombie retired to his former quarters on Lake George. Here, anxious in any way to repair the mischief and disgrace of defeat, he consented, at the solicitation of Col. Bradstreet, to detach him with three thousand men, against fort Frontenac, on the northwest side of the outlet of Lake Ontario. With these troops, mostly provincial, Bradstreet sailed down the Ontario, landed within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and, in two days, forced this important fortress to surrender. Nine armed vessels, sixty cannon, sixteen mortars, and a vast quantity of ammunition, &c. &c. fell into his hands.

Section XVIII. To dispossess the French at *Fort Du Quesne*, the bulwark of their dominion over the western regions, was a third expedition contemplated this year. This enterprise was entrusted to Gen. Forbes, who left Philadelphia in July, but did not arrive at Du Quesne till late in November. The force collected for the at-

amounted to eight thousand effective men. attack, however, was needless, the fort hav- been deserted by the garrison the evening ore the arrival of the army. On taking quiet session of the place, Forbes, in honour of Mr. , called it *Pittsburg*.

lotwithstanding the defeat of Ticonderoga, campaign closed with honour to the colonies, to the nation in general. The successes of year prepared the way for the still greater evements of the ensuing year.

ection XIX. Another event of this year con- ed in bringing to pass the fortunate issues of next. This was a treaty of peace and friend- with the Indian nations inhabiting between Apalachian mountains, the Alleghanies, and lakes. This treaty was concluded at Easton, y miles from Philadelphia.

e managers of the treaty on the part of Great Britain, were overnours of Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, Sir William son, four members of the council of Pennsylvania, six bers of assembly, and two agents from New-Jersey.

e tribes represented on this occasion, and with which the was made, were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagoes, gas, Senecas, Tuscaroras, Nanticoques, and Conays, the oes, Chugnuts, Delawares, Unamies, Minisinks, Mohicans, Wappingers. The whole number of Indians, including n and children, present, amounted to five hundred.

ection XX. The campaign of 1759 had, for bject, the entire conquest of Canada. For purpose, it was determined, that three pow- armies should enter Canada by different es, and attack, at nearly the same time, all strong holds of the French in that country. se were *Ticonderoga* and *Crown Point*, *Ni- ra* and *Quebec*.

ection XXI. Gen. Amherst, who had suc- ed Abercrombie, as commander in chief,

led one division against *Ticonderoga*, which he reached July 22d. This fortress soon surrendered, the principal part of the garrison having retired to Crown Point. Having strengthened Ticonderoga, the army next proceeded against this latter place, and took quiet possession of it, the enemy having fled before their arrival.

The French retired to the Isle aux Noix, situated at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, where they were strongly encamped with a force of three thousand five hundred men, and a powerful artillery. Gen. Amherst designed to follow up his successes against them in that quarter, but the want of a suitable naval armament prevented.

Section XXII. The second division of the army, commanded by Gen. Prideaux, was destined against *Niagara*, at which place they arrived July 6th, without loss or opposition. The place was immediately invested: on the 24th of the month, a general battle took place, which decided the fate of Niagara, and placed it in the hands of the English.

Four days previous to this battle, that able and distinguished officer, General Prideaux, was killed by the bursting of a cohorn. The command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who successfully put in execution the plans of his lamented predecessor.

Section XXIII. While the English troops were achieving these important victories in Upper Canada, Gen. Wolfe was prosecuting the most important enterprise of the campaign, viz. the reduction of Quebec. Embarking at Louisburg with eight thousand men, under convoy of Admirals Saunders and Holmes, he landed with his troops in June, on the island of Orleans, a little below Quebec.

After several attempts to reduce the place, which proved unsuccessful, Wolfe conceived the project of ascending with his troops, a precipice

rom 150 to 200 feet, by which he would reach plains of Abraham, lying south and west of city, and thus gain access to the enemy, in a fortified spot.

'his ascent he effected with his army, and ere ntcalm, the French general, was aware of it, army had formed on the heights of Abraham, were prepared for battle.

Iere, on the morning of the 13th of Septem-, Wolfe met the French army under Mont-n, and after a severe and bloody contest, in ch both these brave commanders fell, victory ided in favour of the English. A thousand oners were taken, and a thousand of the ene- were killed. The loss of the English, in ed and wounded did not exceed six hundred. e days after, the city capitulated; the in-itants were to enjoy their civil and religious its, and remain neutral during the war. The was garrisoned under the command of Gen. rray.

etermined from the first to take the place, impregnable as is accounted, the measures of Gen. Wolfe, were singularly and apparently repugnant to all the maxims of war. His tion was first drawn to point Levi, on the southern bank of t. Lawrence, upon which, after taking possession of it, he ed batteries. By means of these, he destroyed many houses, rom this point it was soon apparent that little impression l be made upon the fortifications of the town.

nding it impracticable thus to accomplish his purpose, Wolfe decided on more daring measures. For the purpose of ing Montcalm to a general battle, Wolfe, with his troops, ed the river Montmorenci, and attacked the enemy in their nchments. Owing, however, to the grounding of some of oats which conveyed the troops, a part of the detachment ot land so soon as the others. The corps that first landed, ut waiting to form, rushed forward, impetuously, towards nemy's entrenchments. But their courage proved their A close and well directed fire from the enemy cut them in great numbers.

Montcalm's party had now landed, and were drawn up on the beach in order. But it was near night, a thunder storm was approaching, and the tide was rapidly setting in. Fearing the consequences of delay, Wolfe ordered a retreat across the Montmorenci, and returned to his quarters on the Isle of Orleans. In this rencounter, his loss amounted to near six hundred of the flower of his army.

The difficulties of effecting the conquest of Quebec now pressed upon Wolfe with all their force. But he knew the importance of taking this strongest hold—he knew the expectations of his countrymen—he well knew that no military conduct could shine that was not gilded with success.

Disappointed thus far, and worn down with fatigue and watching, General Wolfe fell violently sick. Scarcely had he recovered, before he proceeded to put in execution a plan which had been matured on his sick bed. This was to proceed up the river—gain the heights of Abraham, and draw Montcalm to a general engagement.

Accordingly, the troops were transported up the river about nine miles. On the 12th of Sept. one hour after midnight, Wolfe and his troops left the ships, and in boats silently dropped down the current, intending to land a league above Cape Diamond, and there ascend the bank leading to the station he wished to gain. Owing, however, to the rapidity of the river, they fell below the intended place, and landed a mile, or a mile and a half, above the city.

The operation was a critical one, as they had to navigate, in silence, down a rapid stream, and to find a right place for landing, which, amidst surrounding darkness, might be easily mistaken. Besides this, the shore was shelving, and the bank so steep and loft , as scarcely to be ascended even without opposition from an enemy. Indeed the attempt was in the greatest danger of being defeated by an occurrence peculiarly interesting, as marking the very great delicacy of the transaction.

One of the French sentinels, posted along the shore, as the English boats were descending, challenged them in the customary military language of the French. "*Qui vit?*" "who goes there?"; to which a captain in Frazer's regiment, who had served in Holland, and was familiar with the French language and customs, promptly replied, "*la France.*" The next question was still more embarrassing, for the sentinel demanded "*a quel regiment?*" "to what regiment." The captain, who happened to know the name of a regiment which was up the river, with Bougainville, promptly rejoined, "*de la Reine,*" "the Queen's." The soldier immediately replied, "*passe,*" for he concluded at once, that this was a French convoy of provisions,

h as the English had learned from some deserters, was ex-
ed to pass down the river to Quebec. The other sentinels
deceived in a similar manner; but one, less credulous than
est, running down to the water's edge, called out "*Pour
e est ce que vous ne parlez plus haut?*" "Why dont you
k louder?" The same captain, with perfect self-command,
ed, "*Tais toi, nous serons entendus!*" "Hush, we shall
verheard and discovered!" The sentry, satisfied with this
on, retired, and the boats passed in safety.*
bout an hour before day, the army began to ascend the pre-
e, the distance of one hundred and fifty or two hundred
almost perpendicular ascent, above which spread the plains
braham. By day-light, Sept. 13th, this almost incredible
prise had been effected—the desired station was attained,
rmy was formed, and ready to meet the enemy.
o Montcalm, the intelligence that the English were occupy-
ne heights of Abraham was most surprising. The impossi-
of ascending the precipice he considered certain, and there-
iad taken no measures to fortify its line. But no sooner
ne informed of the position of the English army, than per-
ng a battle no longer to be avoided, he prepared to fight.
een nine and ten o'clock, the two armies, about equal in
bers, met face to face.
ne battle now commenced. Inattentive to the fire of a body
nadians and Indians, one thousand five hundred of whom
calm had stationed in the cornfields and bushes, Wolfe di-
l his troops to reserve their fire for the main body of the
ch, now rapidly advancing. On their approach within
yards, the English opened their fire and the destruction
ne immense.
e French fought bravely, but their ranks became disorder-
id, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of their officers to
them, and to renew the attack, they were so successfully
d by the British bayonet, and hewn down by the Highland
sword, that their discomfiture was complete.
ring the action, Montcalm was on the French left, and
e on the English right, and here they both fell in the criti
oment that decided the victory. Early in the battle, Wolfe
ed a ball in his wrist, but binding his handkerchief around
continued to encourage his men.—Shortly after, another
enetrated his groin; but this wound, although much more
e, he concealed, and continued to urge on the contest, till

* Silliman's Tour, from Smollet.

a third bullet pierced his breast. He was now obliged, though reluctantly, to be carried to the rear of the line.

Gen. Monckton succeeded to the command, but was immediately wounded, and conveyed away. In this critical state of the action, the command devolved on Gen. Townshend. Gen. Montcalm, fighting in front of his battalion, received a mortal wound about the same time, and Gen. Jennezergus, his second in command, fell near his side.

Wolfe died in the field, before the battle was ended; but he lived long enough to know that the victory was his.—While leaning on the shoulder of a lieutenant, who kneeled to support him, he was seized with the agonies of death: at this moment was heard the distant sound, "They fly"—"they fly." The hero raised his drooping head, and eagerly asked, "Who fly?" Being told that it was the French—"Then," he replied, "I die happy," and expired.

"This death," says professor Silliman, "has furnished a grand and pathetic subject for the painter, the poet, and the historian, and undoubtedly, considered as a specimen of *mere* military glory, it is one of the most sublime that the annals of war afford."

Montcalm was every way worthy of being the competitor of Wolfe. In talents—in military skill—in personal courage, he was not his inferiour. Nor was his death much less sublime. He lived to be carried to the city, where his last moments were employed in writing, with his own hand, a letter to the English general, recommending the French prisoners to his care and humanity. When informed that his wound was mortal, he replied, "I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The following interesting particulars, relating to the dangers and sufferings of two officers of the English army, during the battle, we shall be excused for inserting, notwithstanding their length.

"Captain Ochterlony and Ensign Peyton, belonged to the regiment of Brigadier-General Monckton. They were nearly of an age, which did not exceed thirty; the first was a North-Briton, the other a native of Ireland. Both were agreeable in person, and were connected together by the ties of mutual friendship and esteem. On the day that preceded the battle, captain Ochterlony had fought a duel with a German officer, in which, though he wounded and disarmed his antagonist, yet he himself received a dangerous hurt under the right arm, in consequence of which his friends insisted on his remaining in camp during the action of next day; but his spirit was too great to comply with this remonstrance. He declared it should never be said that a scratch, received in a private rencounter, had prevented him from doing

duty, when his country required his service; and he took field with a fusil in his hand, though he was hardly able to y his arms. In leading up his men to the enemy's entrench- t, he was shot through the lungs with a musket ball, an ac- nt which obliged him to part with his fusil, but he still con- ed advancing, until, by loss of blood, he became too weak to ceed further. About the same time, Mr. Peyton was lamed shot, which shattered the small bone of his left leg. The iers, in their retreat, earnestly begged, with tears in their , that captain Ochterlony would allow them to carry him the ensign off the field. But he was so bigotted to a severe t of honour, that he would not quit the ground, though he red they would take care of his ensign. Mr. Peyton, with nerous disdain, rejected their good offices, declaring that he ld not leave his captain in such a situation; and in a little , they remained sole survivors on that part of the field.

Captain Ochterlony sat down by his friend, and as they ex- ed nothing but immediate death, they took leave of each r; yet they were not altogether abandoned by the hope of g protected as prisoners; for the captain seeing a French ier, with two Indians, approach, started up, and accosting n in the French language, which he spoke perfectly well, essed his expectation that they would treat him and his com- on as officers, prisoners, and gentlemen. The two Indians ned to be entirely under the conduct of the Frenchman, who, ing up to Mr. Peyton, as he sat on the ground, snatched his d hat from his head, and robbed the captain of his watch money. This outrage was a signal to the Indians for mur- and pillage. One of them, clubbing his firelock, struck at behind, with a view to knock him down, but the blow miss- is head, took place upon his shoulder. At the same instant, other Indian poured his shot into the breast of this unfortun- young gentleman, who cried out, "O Peyton! the villain shot me." Not yet satiated with cruelty, the barbarian ng upon him, and stabbed him in the belly with his scalping e. The captain having parted with his fusil, had no wea- for his defence, as none of the officers wore swords in the n. The three ruffians finding him still alive, endeavoured rangle him with his own sash; and he was now upon his s, struggling against them with surprising exertion. Mr. on, at this juncture, having a double-barrelled musket in his , and seeing the distress of his friend, fired at one of the ans, who dropped dead on the spot. The other, thinking nsign would now be an easy prey, advanced towards him, Mr. Peyton, having taken good aim, at the distance of four s, discharged his piece the second time, but it seemed to

take no effect. The savage fired in his turn, and wounded the ensign in the shoulder; then rushing upon him, thrust his bayonet through his body; he repeated the blow, which Mr. Peyton attempting to parry, received another wound in his left hand; nevertheless, he seized the Indian's musket with the same hand, pulled him forwards, and with his right, drawing a dagger which hung by his side, plunged it in the barbarian's side. A violent struggle ensued; but at length Mr. Peyton was uppermost, and, with repeated strokes of his dagger, killed his antagonist outright. Here he was seized with an unaccountable emotion of curiosity, to know whether or not his shot had taken effect on the body of the Indian; he accordingly turned him up, and stripping off his blanket, perceived that the ball had penetrated quite through the cavity of the breast. Having thus obtained a dear bought victory, he started up on one leg, and saw captain Ochterlony standing at the distance of sixty yards, close by the enemy's breast-work, with the French soldier attending him. Mr. Peyton then called aloud, "Captain Ochterlony, I am glad to see you have at last got under protection. Beware of that villain, who is more barbarous than the savages. God bless you, my dear Captain. I see a party of Indians coming this way, and expect to be murdered immediately." A number of these barbarians had for some time been employed on the left, in scalping and pillaging the dying and the dead that were left upon the field of battle; and above thirty of them were in full march to destroy Mr. Peyton. This gentleman knew he had no mercy to expect; for, should his life be spared for the present, they would have afterwards insisted upon sacrificing him to the manes of their brethren whom he had slain; and in that case he would have been put to death by the most excruciating tortures. Full of this idea, he snatched up his musket, and, notwithstanding his broken leg, ran above forty yards without halting; and feeling himself now totally disabled, and incapable of proceeding one step further, he loaded his piece, and presented it to the two foremost Indians, who stood aloof waiting to be joined by their fellows: while the French, from their breast-works, kept up a continual fire of cannon and small arms upon this poor, solitary, maimed gentleman. In this uncomfortable situation he stood, when he discerned at a distance, a Highland officer, with a party of his men, skirting the plain towards the field of battle. He forthwith waved his hand in signal of distress, and being perceived by the officer, he detached three of his men to his assistance. These brave fellows hastened to him through the midst of a terrible fire, and one of them bore him off on his shoulders. The Highland officer was captain Macdonald, of Colonel Frazier's battalion; who, understanding that

ung gentleman, his kinsman, had dropped on the field of
e, had put himself at the head of this party, with which he
trated to the middle of the field, drove a considerable num-
f the French and Indians before him, and finding his rela-
still unscalped, carried him off in triumph. Poor captain
erlony was conveyed to Quebec, where, in a few days he
of wounds. After the reduction of that place, the French
eons who attended him, declared, that in all probability, he
d have recovered of the two shots he had received in his
st, had he not been mortally wounded in the belly by the
ans scalping knife.

"As this very remarkable scene was acted in sight of both
es, General Townshend, in the sequel, expostulated with
rench officers upon the inhumanity of keeping up such a
e fire against two wounded gentlemen, who were disabled,
destitute of all hope of escaping. They answered that the
was not made by the regulars, but by the Canadians and
ges, whom it was not in the power of discipline to restrain."*

Section XXIV. The capture of Quebec, which
n followed, important as it was, did not imme-
tely terminate the war. The French in Ca-
la had still a powerful army, and some naval
e above the city.

Section XXV. In the ensuing spring, 1760,
nsieur Levi approached Quebec from Mon-
al, assisted by six frigates, for the purpose of
overing it from the English. Gen. Murray,
o commanded the English garrison, marched
to meet him, with only three thousand men,
d, on the 28th of April, after a bloody battle,
ght at Sillsery, three miles above the city, the
glish army was defeated, with the loss of one
usand men, the French having lost more than
able that number.

The English retreated to Quebec, to which
French now laid siege. About the middle
May, an English squadron arrived with rein-

* Silliman's Tour, from Smollet.

forcements, soon after which, the French fleet was taken and destroyed, and the siege was raised.

Section XXVI. The attention of the English commander in chief, Gen. Amherst was now directed to the reduction of Montreal, the last fortress of consequence in the possession of the French. To effect this he detached Col. Haviland, with a well disciplined army to proceed to Lake George, Crown Point, and Lake Champlain; Gen. Murray was ordered from Quebec, with such forces as could be spared from the garrison, while General Amherst himself proceeded with ten thousand men, by Lake Ontario, down the river St. Lawrence.

Generals Amherst and Murray arrived at Montreal the same day Sept. 6th, and were joined by Haviland, on the day succeeding. While preparing to lay siege to the place, the commander of Montreal, M. de Vaudreuil, perceiving that resistance would be ineffectual, demanded a capitulation. On the 8th, Montreal, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and all the other places within the government of Canada were surrendered to his Brittanick Majesty.

Section XXVII. Thus ended a war which, from the first hostilities, had continued six years, and during which much distress had been experienced and many thousand valuable lives lost. Great and universal was the joy that spread through the colonies, at the successful termination of a contest, so long and severe, and publick thanksgivings were generally appointed to ascribe due honour to HIM, who had preserved to the colonies their existence and liberties.

Section XXVIII. While the troops were em-

yed in the conquest of Canada, the Colonies Virginia and South Carolina, suffered invam and outrage from the Cherokees, a powerful be of savages on the West. But in 1761, they re signally defeated by Col. Grant, and comlled to sue for peace.

telligence being communicated to Gen. Amherst of the danl of these colonies, he despatched Gen. Montgomery with one asand two hundred men, for their protection and relief. Being joined by the forces of the province of Carolina on his val, he immediately proceeded into the country of the Chees, plundering and destroying their villages and magazines corn. In revenge, the savages besieged Fort Loudon, on the ntfines of Virginia, which was obliged, by reason of famine, to itulate. The capitulation was, however, broken, and the pps, while on their march to Virginia, were assaulted—nums of them killed, and the rest taken captive.

The next year, 1761, Gen. Montgomery being obliged to re, Col. Grant was sent to continue the war. With an army ear two thousand six hundred men, he began his march tods the enemies' country. On the fourth day the army fell with a body of savages, and after a strongly contested battle, them to flight. Following up this victory, Col. Grant prooded to destroy their magazines, burn their corn fields, and asume their settlements, until, having effectually routed them, returned with his troops. Soon after this, the Cherokee efs came in, and a peace was concluded.

Section XXIX. The conquest of Canada ving been achieved in 1763, a definitive treaty, e preliminaries of which had been settled the ar before, was signed at Paris, and soon after tified by the kings of England and France; which all Nova Scotia, Canada, the Isle of ape Breton, and all other islands in the gulf nd river St. Lawrence, were ceded to the Brish crown.

Notes.

Section XXX. **Manners of the Colonists.** The change in respect to manners in the colonies, during this period, consisted chiefly in a gradual wearing away of national distinctions and peculiarities, and a tendency to a still greater unity and assimilation of character. The rapid increase of wealth, and the frequency of intercourse with Europe, began to introduce among the colonies the tastes, and fashions, and luxuries of European countries. But the introduction of them produced little enervation of character among the people of America. Such an effect was counteracted by the bloody, but successful war with the French and Indians, and the boundless prosperity which seemed to open to the country, and call forth its energies. Instead, therefore, of a growing weakness in the colonies, we perceive a more vigorous spirit of commercial enterprise, pervading the country; a consciousness of political importance becoming confirmed; and a deep and ardent love of civil liberty breathing over the land.

Section XXXI. **Religion.** The only religious sect introduced into America, during this period, was that of the *Shakers*, or *Shaking Quakers*, who arrived from England in 1774, and settled at Niskayuna, near Albany.

Although the spirit of religious intolerance had disappeared from the colonies, and the puritanical severity of the north had become much softened, yet until the commencement of the French and Indian war, the religious character of the colonies had remained essentially the same. But during this war, *infidelity* was extensively introduced into the army, by means of the foreign English officers and soldiers who were sent into the country. From the army, it spread itself into society, and pro-

a considerable relaxation of morals, and a looser adher-
o principles.

ection XXXII. **Trade and Com-**
rce. During this period, trade and com-
ce made great advances; the annual amount
mports from Great Britain, was about two
a half millions of pounds sterling, from 1756
71: from 1771 to 1773, it was three millions
a half annually, on an average.—The annual
unt of exports of the colonies to Great Bri-
and elsewhere, was about four million pounds
ing, at the close of this period. The articles
xport, and the nature of the trade of the co-
es, were essentially the same as stated in the
s to period third.

1769, the number of ships employed by Great Britain and
lonies, in the trade with the colonies, was one thousand se-
eight, manned by twenty-eight thousand nine hundred and
amen.

e whale and other fisheries in the colonies had become of
mportance. In 1775, there were employed in the fishery
lly, and in carrying the fish to market from New-England,
ousand four hundred and fifty vessels of all descriptions,
hundred thousand tons burthen, and eleven thousand fish-
and seamen.

ction XXXIII. **Agriculture.** During
period, a gradual progress was made in ag-
ture, but it does not need any specifick no-

ction XXXIV. **Arts and Manufac-**
s. Great Britain still continued to oppose
progress of arts and manufactures in the co-
s, and, therefore, there was but a moderate
nce of these interests, during this period.

ction XXXV. **Population.** At the close
is period, the white and black population of
olonies did not vary greatly from three mil-

ction XXXVI. **Education.** In the year

1769, the college at Hanover, New-Hampshire, was founded, and called *Dartmouth College*, in honour of the earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors.

In 1770, the University in Rhode-Island called *Brown University*, was established at Providence. It was incorporated in 1764, and first located at Warren. At this place the first commencement was held, 1769.

Reflections.

XXXVII. The preceding short period of our history presents several interesting subjects of reflection. The American colonies became the theatre of a bloody conflict, attended by all the appalling features of savage war. Although feebly supported by England, and embarrassed by the want of political union, they surmounted every obstacle, and compelled the French, their enemies, to depart from their shores for ever.

But no sooner was this conflict ended, than they began to feel, with added weight, the hand of British oppression.—Not humbled, however, by injustice, nor crushed by severities, they vigorously put forth their strength in commerce, trade, and agriculture. They spread innumerable sails upon the ocean; they converted forests into meadows and wheat fields; established seminaries of learning; founded cities; and built churches to God.

Nay, more—we see that those very steps, which were taken by the mother country to cripple the American colonies, were so ordered as to add to their strength. By leaving them to bear the war of 1756 almost alone, she showed them that they could not expect defence from her; she taught them the necessity of relying upon their own energies; gave them an opportunity to learn the art of war, and to ascertain their own strength.

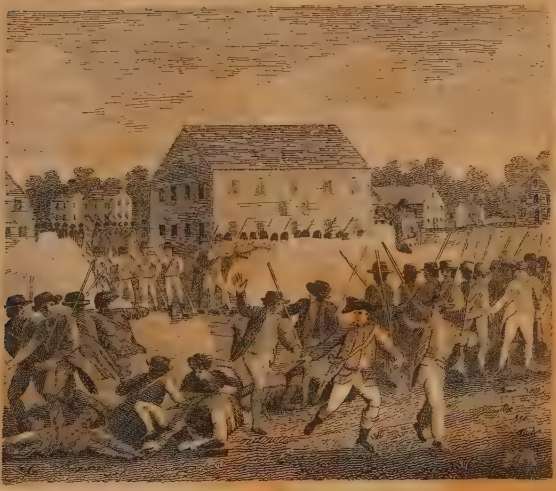
The long line of British acts, designed to crush the colonies and to keep them in humble subjection, passed, as they were, in wilful ignorance of the feelings and power of America, awakened the spirit of the revolution, and laid the foundation of a great nation.

What a lesson may tyranny gather from this! And how thankful should *we* be, that a just Providence is above, who regards the affairs of men—who turns aside the trampling heel of oppression, and causes the blood wrung out by tyranny to cry from the ground, and to call forth the spirit of liberty!

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES.



BATTLE OF LEXINGTON.

1775.

HARTFORD.

PUBLISHED BY SUBSCRIBERS

1828

UNITED STATES.

Period V.

TINGUISHED FOR THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

tending from the commencement of hostilities y Great Britain against the American co-onies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, *to the lisbanding of the American Army at West Point*, 1783.

Section I. On the 19th of April, 1775, was d at Lexington, Massachusetts, the first blood he war of the revolution—a war, which ter-nated in the separation of the American colo-s from Great Britain, and in their change from s humble character and condition, to that of e and independent States.

Section II. The *causes*, which led the colonies take up arms against the mother country, de-ve a distinct recital in this portion of our his-y, as they will clearly show the justice, wis-m, and necessity of those acts of resistance, to ich, at that trying period, resort was had.

"The independence of America," it has been served, "was found by those who sought it t." When the Fathers of this country left eat Britain, they had no intention of establish-a government independent of that of Eng-d. On the contrary, they came out as colo-ts, and expected still to acknowledge allegi-ce to the mother country. For many years,

when they spoke, or wrote, or thought of England, it was under the filial and affectionate idea of "*home*." "And even at the commencement of the controversy with Great Britain," if we credit those who lived at that time, "there existed no *desire*, nor *intention* of becoming independent."

Testimony with respect to the filial disposition of the colonies towards the mother country abounds. "I profess," said Pownal, who had been governour and commander in chief of Massachusetts Bay—governour of South Carolina, &c. &c.

"I profess," said he, in 1765, "an affection for the colonies, because, having lived among their people, in a private as well as publick character, I know them—I know that in their private social relations, there is not a more friendly, and in their political one, a more zealously loyal people in all his majesty's dominions. They would sacrifice their dearest interest for the honour of their mother country. I have a right to say this, because experience has given me a practical knowledge and this impression of them.—They have no other idea of this country than as their home; they have no other word by which to express it, and till of late, it has been constantly expressed by the name of home."

To the same effect is the testimony of Dr. Franklin. "Scotland," said he, in 1768, "has had its rebellions; Ireland has had its rebellions; England its plots against the reigning family; but *America* is free from this reproach;"—"No people were ever known more truly loyal: the protestant succession in the house of Hanover was their idol."

For these feelings of affection for the mother country, the colonies deserve the highest encomium. Causes existed which might have justified a less degree of attachment, and were calculated to produce it. These were the oppression and losses which they endured; the shackles imposed upon them; the restraints upon their commerce; the parsimony with which aid was administered by the mother country; the maleadministration—the peculation and arbitrary conduct of the royal governours—these things were sufficient, and more than sufficient, to stifle every

ling of affection, and shake the last remains heir allegiance.

Yet, through all this oppressive subordination through the calamities of war—through the mpt to wrest from them their charters, and ir dearest rights—they could say, and did say, ngland, with all thy faults, I love thee still."

Nor is it probable that these friendly disposiis of the colonies would at this time have been hdrawn, had not Great Britain interrupted m by a grievous change of policy towards the abitants touching the subject of revenue and ation.

Before the peace of '63, this subject had been ely let alone. The colonies had been perted to tax themselves, without the interfere of the parliament. Till this period, it had ficed for the mother country so to control ir commerce, as to monopolize its benefits to self. But from and after this period, the cient system was set aside, and a different d oppressive policy adopted. The first act, avowed purpose of which was a revenue m the colonies, passed the parliament, Sept. th, 1764, the preamble to which began thus: "Whereas, it is *just* and necessary that a *venue* be raised in America, for defraying the penses of defending, protecting, and securing e same, we the commons, &c." The act then oceeds to lay a duty on "clayed sugar, indigo, ffee, &c. &c. being the produce of a colony t under the dominion of his majesty."

This act the colonies could not approve ey could not approve of it, because it recogzed the existence of a right to tax them—a ght not founded in justice, and which since

their existence, nearly one hundred and fifty years, until now, had seldom been named. But the colonies could submit to it, although unpleasant and unjust, nor would this act alone have led to permanent disaffection, had it not been followed by other acts, still more unjust and oppressive.

On the subject of the right of the British parliament to tax the colonies, it was asserted in the mother country "to be essential to the unity, and of course to the prosperity, of the empire, that the British parliament should have a right of taxation over every part of the royal dominions." In the colonies it was contended, "that *taxation* and *representation* were inseparable, and that they could not be safe, if their property might be taken from them, without their consent." This claim of the right of taxation on the one side, and the denial of it on the other, was *the very hinge on which the revolution turned.*

In accordance with the policy to be observed towards America, the next year, 1765, the famous *stamp act* passed both houses of parliament. This ordained that instruments of writing, such as deeds, bonds, notes, &c. among the colonies, should be null and void, unless executed on *stamped* paper, for which a duty should be paid to the crown.

When this bill was brought in, the ministers, and particularly Charles Townshend, exclaimed:

"These Americans, our own children, planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence; will they now turn their backs upon us, and grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load which overwhelms us?"

Col. Barre caught the words, and, with a vehemence becoming a soldier, rose and said:

"*Planted by your care!* No! your oppression planted them in America; they fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and among others, to the savage cruelty of the enemy of the country, a people, the most subtle, and, I take upon me to say, the most truly terrible of any people that ever inhabited any part of God's earth; and

ctuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all hardships with pleasure, compared with those they suffer- in their own country, from the hands of those that should been their friends.

They nourished by your indulgence! They grew by neglect; as soon as you began to care about them, that was exercised in sending persons to rule over them, in one rtment and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of deputies of some members of this house, sent to spy out liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon : men, whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused lood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them : men, oted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my vledge, were glad, by going to foreign countries, to escape engeance of the laws in their own.

They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken rms in your defence, have exerted their valour amidst their tant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country e frontiers, while drenched in blood, its interior parts have ed for your enlargement the little savings of their frugality the fruits of their toils. And *believe me, remember*, I this told you so, that the same spirit which actuated that people st, will continue with them still."

he night after this act passed, Doctor Franklin, who was in London, wrote to Charles Thompson, afterwards secre- of the Continental Congress, " *The sun of liberty is set; Americans must light the lamps of industry and economy.*" which Mr. Thompson answered; " Be assured we shall *torches of quite another sort*"—thus predicting the con- ons which were about to follow.

Section III. On the arrival of the news of the mp act in America, a general indignation ead through the country, and resolutions were sed against the act, by most of the colonial emblies.

these resolutions, Virginia led the way. On the meeting e house of burgesses, Patrick Henry presented, among rs, the following resolutions, which were substantially ted.

esolved, That his majesty's liege people of this his ancient ny, have enjoyed the rights of being thus governed by their assembly, in the article of taxes, and internal police, and the same have never been forfeited, or yielded up, but have constantly recognized by the king and people of Britain

Resolved, therefore, That the general assembly of this colony, together with his majesty, or his substitutes, have, in their representative capacity, the only exclusive right and power to lay taxes and imposts upon the inhabitants of this colony; and that every attempt to vest such power in any other person, or persons, whatsoever, than the general assembly aforesaid, is illegal, unconstitutional, and unjust, and hath a manifest tendency to destroy British as well as American liberty.

Resolved, That his majesty's liege people, the inhabitants of this colony, are not bound to yield obedience to any law or ordinance whatever, designed to impose any taxation whatever upon them, other than the laws or ordinances of the general assembly aforesaid.

Resolved, That any person who shall, by speaking or writing, assert or maintain that any person, or persons, other than the general assembly of this colony, have any right or power to impose or lay any tax on the people here, shall be deemed an enemy to this, his majesty's colony.

Copies of these resolutions were immediately forwarded to the other provinces, and served to raise still higher the general feeling of opposition to the conduct of the mother country.

Section IV. In June, Massachusetts recommended a colonial congress to consult for the general safety. The recommendation was well received by most of the colonies, and in October, twenty-eight members assembled in New-York, where they remonstrated against the stamp act, and petitioned its repeal. At the same time, also, they drew up a bill of rights, in which taxation and representation were declared to be inseparable.

Section V. The stamp act came into operation on the first of November. In Boston, and in Portsmouth, the day was ushered in by a funeral tolling of the bells. In the latter place, in the course of the day, a coffin, neatly ornamented, and inscribed with the word *Liberty*, in large letters, was carried to the grave. Minute guns were fired during the movement of the procession to the place of interment; where an

ition was offered in favour of the deceased. ilar expressions of wounded and indignant ing occurred in various parts of the country. n some places, the stamp officers were oblig- o resign, or to secrete themselves, to escape vengeance of the people. Stamps were not mitted to be landed, and business, in many es, was conducted without them. At the e time, associations were formed in all parts ne the country, by merchants, not to import ds until this odious act was repealed. Most erfully did the people, women as well as , enter upon this self-denial. Luxuries, orations, elegancies, were universally laid e.

he opposition to the stamp act in America so spirited, so deep laid, so universal, that iament had only the alternative, to compel to submit, or to repeal it. After a long and ry debate on the question, the repeal was ied:—but accompanying the repealing act, one called the *declaratory* act, more hostile merican rights than any which had preced-

The language of the act was, "that par- ent have, and of right ought to have, *power ind the colonies in all cases whatsoever.*"

the meeting of Parliament, Jan. 7th, 1766, his majesty speech spoke of the above opposition of the colonies to amp act, in pointed terms of reprehension. On the mo- or an address to the king, Mr. Pitt, the independent and able friend of liberty and equal rights, was the first to of- is sentiments on the state of affairs. "It is a long time, Speaker," said he, "since I have attended in Parliament: the resolution was taken in this house to tax America, I ll in bed. If I could have endured to have been carried in ed, so great was the agitation of my mind for the conse- ces, I would have solicited some kind hand to have laid lown on this floor to have borne my testimony against it.

It is my opinion that this kingdom has NO RIGHT to lay a tax upon the colonies."

Upon concluding his speech, a silence of some minutes succeeded. No one appeared inclined to take the part of the late minister, or to rouse the lion, which lay basking in the eye of the great Commoner who had just sat down. At length, Mr Grenville rose to reply. After declaring the tumult in America to border upon *rebellion*, and insisting upon the constitutional right of Parliament to tax the colonies, he concluded as follows: "*Ungrateful people of America!* The nation has run itself into an immense debt to give them protection; bounties have been extended to them; in their favour the act of navigation, that palladium of the British commerce, has been relaxed: and now that they are called upon to contribute a small share towards the publick expence, they renounce your authority, insult your officers, and break out, I might almost say, into open rebellion."

Mr. Grenville had scarcely taken his seat, when Mr. Pitt, rose to reply—but the rules of the house forbidding him to speak twice on the same motion, he was called to order, and in obedience to the call, was resuming his seat, when the loud and repeated cry of "Go on," induced him once more to take the floor. In the course of his speech he said, "We are told America is *obstinate*—America is in open *rebellion.* Sir, I *rejoice that America has resisted;* three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty, as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest. I am no courtier of America. I maintain that Parliament has a right to bind, to restrain America. Our legislative power over the Colonies is sovereign and supreme. "When," asks the honourable gentleman "were the colonies *emancipated?*" At what time, say I in answer, were they made *slaves?* I speak from accurate knowledge when I say that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, is two millions per annum. This is the fund which carried you triumphantly through the war; this is the price America pays you for her protection; and shall a miserable financier come with a boast that he can fetch a pepper-corn into the exchequer, at the loss of millions to the nation?

I know the valour of your troops—I know the skill of your officers—I know the force of this country; but in such a cause your success would be hazardous. America, if she fell, would fall like the strong man: she would embrace the pillars of the state, and pull down the constitution with her. Is this your boasted peace? not to sheathe the sword in the scabbard, but

neathe it in the bowels of your countrymen? The Ameri- have been wronged—they have been driven to madness njustice! Will you punish them for the madness you have sioned? No: let this country be the first to resume its pru- ce and temper; I will pledge myself for the colonies, that heir part, animosity and resentment will cease. Upon the le I will beg leave to tell the house in few words what is y my opinion. It is, that the stamp act be repealed *abso- ly, totally* and *immediately.*"

n the 22d of February, General Conway introduced a mo- to repeal this act. The debate lasted until three o'clock he morning, and never was there a debate which excited e warmth of interest, or more vehemence of opposition. lobbies of the house were crowded with the manufacturers traders of the kingdom, whose anxious countenances plainly ved that their fates hung upon the issue. A division at th being called for, two hundred and seventy-five rose in port of the motion, and one hundred and sixty-seven against

n learning this vote, the transports of the people were un- rnable. Impressed with the conviction that they owed r deliverance to Mr. Pitt, their gratitude knew no bounds: n he appeared at the door, in the language of Burke, "they ped upon him, like children on a long absent father. They g to him as captives about their redeemer. All *England* ed in his applause." In the house of Peers, the opposition he motion was still more obstinate. Some of the Dukes, the whole *Bench of Bishops* were for forcing the Ameri- s to submit, with *fire* and *sword.* Opposition however was ength wearied out, and the motion to repeal was carried by ajority of thirty-four, a compromise having been made by oducing the above *declaratory act.*

The satisfaction of the colonies on the repeal the stamp act was sincere and universal. Ele- ted with the idea of having removed an odious d oppressive burden, and believing, notwith- nding the declaratory act of parliament, that e right of taxing the colonies was at length sur- ndered, better feelings were indulged; com- ercial intercourse was revived, and larger im- rtations of goods were made than ever.

Section VI. The colonies, however, mistook e spirit and determination of the ministry.

For, in 1767, a bill passed the parliament, imposing a duty to be collected in the colonies on glass, paper, painter's colours, and tea.

This act, with several others, not less arbitrary and unjust, again spread alarm through the colonies, and revived the fire of opposition which had been smothered by the repeal of the stamp act. Again were associations formed to prevent the importation of British goods; again were meetings called to resolve, petition, and remonstrate.

Section VII. In Feb. 1769, both houses of parliament went a step beyond all that had preceded, in an address to the king, requesting him to give orders to the governour of Massachusetts—the spirited conduct of which province was particularly obnoxious to the ministry—to take notice of such as might be guilty of treason, that they might be sent to *England* and *tried there.*

A measure more odious to the people of America, or more hostile to the British constitution, could not be named, than for a man to be torn from his country, to be tried by a jury of strangers.

The house of burgesses of Virginia met soon after the official accounts of this address were received, and, in a few days, passed several spirited resolutions, expressing "their exclusive right to tax their constituents, and denying the right of his majesty to remove an offender out of the country for trial." The next day, the royal governour of that colony sent for the house of burgesses and addressed them laconically as follows: "Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the house of burgesses, I have heard of your resolves, and augur ill of their effects. You have made it my duty to dissolve you, and you are accordingly dissolved!" The assembly of North Carolina passed similar resolutions and were dissolved by their governour, in a similar manner.

Section VIII. While affairs were thus situated, an event occurred which produced great excitement in America, particularly in Massachusetts.

s was an affray on the evening of the fifth of rch 1770, between some of the citizens of ton, and a number of his majesty's soldiers, had been sent from Halifax, and were now ioned at the custom house. Several of the ibitants were killed, and others severely nded.

e quarrel commenced on the 2d of March, at Gray's rope , between a soldier, and a man employed at the rope walk. provocation was given by the citizen, and a scuffle ensued, nich the soldier was beaten. On the 5th of the month, the ers while under arms were pressed upon and insulted, and to fire. One of them, who had received a blow, fired at ggressor, and a single discharge from six others succeeded. e of the citizens were killed, and five dangerously wounded. town was instantly thrown into the greatest commotion, the were rung, and the general cry was "to arms." In a short several thousands of the citizens had assembled, and a lful scene of blood must have ensued, but for the promise overnour Hutchinson, that the affair should be settled to satisfaction in the morning. Captain Preston, who com- led the soldiers, was committed with them to prison. Up- eir trial the captain and six soldiers were acquitted; two convicted of manslaughter. For several subsequent years evening of the day on which this outrage was committed was memorated by the citizens of Boston, and the event gave oc- on to addresses the most warm and patriotick, which served aken up, and increase the spirit of the revolution.

Section IX. 1773. The recommendations of etings and associations to suspend the impor- on of tea, had been so strictly complied with, t but little had been brought into the country. e consequence was, that vast quantities, se- nteen millions of pounds, had accumulated on the hands of the East India Company.— r their relief, the parliament now authorized m to export this tea into any part of the world, e of duty. By this regulation, tea would come eaper to the colonies than before it had been de a source of revenue—parliament having,

in 1767, reduced the duty on it to three pence a pound.

Confident of now finding a market for their tea in America, the East India Company freighted several ships with that article for the different colonies, and appointed agents to dispose of it. On the arrival of this tea, however, the determination of the colonists was formed—they would not pay even *three pence* by way of *duty*. The consequence was, that cargoes of tea, sent to New-York and Philadelphia, were returned without being entered at the custom house; and those sent to Charleston, S. C. were stored, but not offered for sale.

In Massachusetts, a different fate awaited it. Upon its arrival, the inhabitants endeavoured to procure its return, but this being impracticable, the tea having been consigned to the relations and friends of the royal governour, Hutchinson, they resolved to destroy it. Accordingly, a number of persons, dressed like Indians, repaired to the ships, and discharged three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the water, without, however, doing any other damage.

Section X. Intelligence of these proceedings was, on the 7th of March, 1774, communicated in a message from the throne to both houses of Parliament. The excitement was peculiarly strong. In the spirit of revenge against Massachusetts, and particularly against Boston, which was considered as the chief seat of rebellion, a bill was brought forward, called the "*Boston port bill*," by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege of landing and discharging, or of loading and shipping goods, wares, and merchandise.

second bill, which passed at this time, essentially altered the charter of the province, giving the appointment of the council, justices, sheriffs, &c. dependent upon the crown, or its court. A third soon followed, authorizing and directing the governour to send any person indicted for murder, or any other capital offence, to another colony, or to Great Britain for trial.

Section XI. On the arrival of these acts, the town of Boston passed the following vote: "That it is the opinion of this town, that, if the other colonies come into a joint resolution to stop all importation from Great Britain and the West Indies, till the act for blocking up this harbour be repealed, the same will prove the salvation of North America and her liberties." Copies of this vote were transmitted to each of the colonies.

As an expression of their sympathy with the people of Boston in their distress, the house of burgesses in Virginia ordered that the day, on which the Boston port bill was to take effect, should be observed as a day of fasting and prayer.

Obs. The words *Whigs and Tories* were, about this time, introduced as the distinguishing names of parties. By the former, was meant those who favoured the cause of Boston, and were zealous in supporting the colonies against the parliament: by the latter, was meant the favourers of Great Britain.

Section XII. During these transactions in Massachusetts, measures had been taken to compose a Continental Congress. On the 4th of September, 1774, deputies from eleven colonies met at Philadelphia, and elected Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, then late speaker of the Virginia Assembly, president, and Charles Thompson, secretary. After considerable debate, it was agreed that each colony should have one equal vote.

Having settled the manner of voting, the congress proceeded to the discharge of the high trust committed to them. They agreed upon a declaration of their rights, recommended the non-importation of British goods into the country, and the non-exportation of American produce to Great Britain, so long as their grievances were unredressed—voted an address to his Majesty—and likewise one to the people of Great Britain, and another to the French inhabitants of Canada.

This congress, having finished their business in less than eight weeks, dissolved themselves, after recommending another congress to be convened on the 10th of May ensuing, unless the redress of their grievances should be previously obtained.

Although the power of this congress was only advisory, their resolutions were approved, not only by the people, but also by the authorities, whether established, or provincial, and exerted a commanding influence in consummating that union among the colonies, which had been increasing with their grievances.

The name by which the above congress is generally known is "*the Continental Congress.*" It consisted of fifty-five members, one half of whom were lawyers. After the arrival of the delegates from North Carolina, twelve colonies were represented.

Section XIII. An assembly was ordered by Gov. Gage, of Massachusetts, to convene Oct. 5th; but before that period arrived, judging their meeting inexpedient, he counteracted the writs of convocation, by a proclamation. The assembly however, to the number of ninety, met at Salem, where the governour not attending, they adjourned to Concord. Here they

ose John Hancock president, and, after adrning to Cambridge, drew up a plan for the mediate defence of the province, by enlisting n, appointing general officers, &c.

1 November, this provincial congress met again, and red to get in readiness twelve thousand men to act in any rgency; and that one fourth part of the militia should be sted as minute-men. At the same time, a request was for ded to Connecticut, New-Hampshire, and Rhode-Island, tly to increase this army to twenty thousand men.

Section XIV. Early the next year, Jan. 7th, 75, Lord Chatham, Mr. Pitt, after a long reement, resumed his seat in the house of rds, and introduced *a conciliatory bill*, the ject of which was, to settle the troubles in nerica. But the efforts of this venerable and ace-making man wholly failed, the bill being ected by a majority of sixty-four to thirtyo, without even the compliment of lying on table.

The rejection of this bill was followed the next day by the oduction of a bill, which finally passed, to restrain the trade the New-England provinces, and to forbid their fishing on banks of Newfoundland. Soon after, restrictions were imsed upon the middle and southern colonies, with the exception of New-York, Delaware, and North Carolina. This bill, signed to promote disunion among the colonies, happily failed its object.

Thus we have given a succinct account of the stem of measures adopted by the ministry of ngland toward the American colonies after e peace of '63—measures most unfeeling and ajust; but which no petitions, however respectl, and no remonstrances, however loud, ould change. Satisfied of this, justice permitd the people, and self-respect and self-preervation loudly summoned them, to *resist by rce.*

Section XV. The crisis, therefore, had now

arrived, the signal of war was given, and the blood shed at *Lexington* opened the scene.

Gen. Gage, the king's governour of Massachusetts, learning that a large quantity of military stores had been deposited by the provincials, at Concord, detached Lieut. Col. Smith, and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred grenadiers, to destroy them. On their arrival at Lexington, on the morning of the 19th of April, 1775, seventy of the militia, who had hastily assembled upon an alarm, were under arms, on the parade. Eight of these were without provocation killed, and several wounded.

The greatest precaution was taken by Governour Gage, to prevent the intelligence of this expedition from reaching the country. Officers were dispersed along the road to intercept expresses, who might be sent from Boston. But the precaution proved ineffectual. The alarm was given, and was rapidly spread by means of church bells, guns, and volleys.

The slaughter of the militia at Lexington was extremely wanton. Major Pitcairn, on seeing them on the parade, rode up to them, and, with a loud voice, cried out, "disperse, disperse you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." The sturdy yeomanry not immediately obeying his orders, he approached nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire.

From Lexington, the detachment proceeded to Concord, and destroyed the stores. After killing several of the militia, who came out to oppose them, they retreated to Lexington with some loss, the Americans firing upon them from behind walls, hedges, and buildings.

Fortunately for the British, here Lord Percy met them, with a reinforcement of nine hundred men, some marines, and two field-pieces. Still annoyed by the provincials, they continued their retreat to Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown, and the day following crossed over to Boston. The British lost, in killed and wounded, during their absence, two hundred and seventy-three. The loss of the Americans amounted to eighty-eight killed, wounded, and missing.

Section XVI. Such was the affair at Lexington, the first action that opened the war of the revolution. The issue of it filled the English

ers with indignation: they could not endure an undisciplined multitude, that "*a flock Yankees*," as they contemptuously named Americans, should have forced them to turn backs. On the contrary, the result of the immeasurably increased the courage of the ericans. The tidings spread; the voice of rung through the land, and preparations every where commenced to carry it for-

he provincial Congress of Massachusetts, g in session at this time, despatched a mi- account of the affair at Lexington, to Great ain, with depositions to prove that the Bri- troops were the aggressors. In conclusion, used this emphatic language: "Appealing eaven for the justice of our cause, *we deter- to die, or be free.*"

he congress, at the same time, resolved a levy should be made in the province of een thousand six hundred men. This force g raised was soon after joined by troops New-Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode- d, and an army of thirty thousand men mbled in the environs of Boston.

ction XVII. As the war had now begun, was likely to proceed, it was deemed im- ant to secure the fortresses of Ticonderoga Crown Point. Accordingly, a number of nteers from Connecticut and Vermont, un- command of Col. Ethan Allen, and Col. edict Arnold, marched against Ticonderoga, on the 10th of May, took it by surprise, the son being asleep. The fortress of Crown t surrendered shortly after.

the arrival of Allen at Ticonderoga, he demanded the "By what authority?" asked the commander. "I de-

mand it," said Allen, "in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress." The summons was instantly obeyed, and the fort was, with its valuable stores, surrendered.

Section XVIII. The taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point was soon followed by the memorable *Battle of Bunker's Hill*, as it is usually called, or of Breed's Hill, a high eminence in Charlestown, within cannon-shot of Boston, where the battle was actually fought, June 17th.

The evening preceding, a detachment of one thousand Americans were ordered to make an intrenchment on Bunker's Hill; but, by some mistake, they proceeded to *Breed's Hill*, and by the dawn of day, had thrown up a redoubt eight rods square, and four feet high.

On discovering this redoubt in the morning, the British commenced a severe cannonade upon it, from several ships and floating batteries, and from a fortification on Copp's Hill, in Boston, which was continued until afternoon. The Americans, however, never intermitted their work for a moment, and during the forenoon, lost but a single man.

Between twelve and one o'clock, three thousand British under command of Major Gen. Howe, and Brigadier Gen. Pigot, crossed Charles River, with an intention to dislodge the Americans.

As they advanced, the British commenced firing at some distance from the redoubt; but the Americans reserved their fire until the enemy were within twelve rods. They then opened, and the carnage was terrible. The British retreated in precipitate confusion. They were, however, rallied by their officers being, in some instances, pushed on by their swords, and were again led to the attack. The Americans now suffered them to approach within six rods, when their fire mowed them down in heaps, and again they fled. Unfortunately for the Americans their ammunition here failed; and, on the third charge of the British, they were obliged to retire, after having obstinately resisted even longer than prudence admitted. The British lost in this engagement two hundred and twenty-six killed, among whom was Major Pitcairn, who first lighted the torch of war at Lexington, and eight hundred and twenty-eight wounded. The Americans lost one hundred and thirty-nine killed, and one wounded and missing there were three hundred and fourteen. Among the killed was the lamented Gen. Warren.

e horrours of this scene were greatly increased by the con-
tion of Charlestown, effected, during the heat of the battle,
e orders of Gen. Gage. By this wanton act of barbarity,
housand people were deprived of their habitations, and
erty to the amount of one hundred and twenty thousand
ds sterling perished in the flames. "Wanton, however,
e burning of Charlestown was, it wonderfully enhanced
dreadful magnificence of the day. To the volleys of
etry and the roar of cannon; to the shouts of the fight-
nd the groans of the dying; to the dark and awful at-
here of smoke, enveloping the whole peninsula, and illu-
d in every quarter by the streams of fire from the various
uments of death; the conflagration of six hundred buildings
d a gloomy and amazing grandeur. In the midst of this
ng lake of flame, the lofty steeple converted into a blazing
mid, towered and trembled over the vast pyre, and finished
cene of desolation."*

o the Americans, the consequences of this battle were those
decided victory. They learned that their enemies were not
nerable. At the same time, they learned the importance
ricter discipline, and greater preparations. As the result of
attle spread, the national pulse beat still higher, and the
of opposition was braced still more firmly.

Section XIX. The second continental con-
ss met at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May.
military opposition to Great Britain was now
olved upon by the colonies, and had actually
mmenced, it became necessary to fix upon a
per person to conduct that opposition. The
son unanimously selected by congress was
orge Washington, a member of their body,
m Virginia.

eneral Washington, in his reply to the President of Con-
s, who announced to him his appointment, after consenting
nter upon the momentous duty assigned him, added: "But
some unlucky event should happen unfavourable to my re-
ation, I beg it may be remembered, by every gentleman in
room, that I this day declare with the utmost sincerity, I
not think myself equal to the command I am honoured with.
As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the congress, that as

* Dwight's Travels.

no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept this arduous employment, at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. Those I doubt not they will discharge, and that is all I desire."*

A special commission was drawn up and presented to him, as commander in chief of the American forces; on presenting it, congress unanimously adopted this resolution: "that they would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes in the cause of American liberty."

Following the appointment of General Washington, was the appointment of four Major-Generals, Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam; and eight Brigadier-Generals, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene.

Section XX. Gen. Washington, on his arrival at Cambridge, on the second of July, was received with joyful acclamations by the American army. He found them stretched from Roxbury to Cambridge, and thence to Mystic river, a distance of twelve miles. The British forces occupied Bunker and Breed's hill, and Boston Neck.

The attention of the commander in chief was immediately directed to the strength and situation of the enemy, and to the introduction of system and union into the army, the want of which pervaded every department. This was a delicate and difficult attempt, but the wisdom and firmness of Washington removed every obstacle, and at length brought even independent freemen, in a good degree, to the controul of military discipline.

Section XXI. While Washington was employed in organizing his army, and preparing for future operations, an important expedition

* The whole sum which, in the course of the war, passed through his hands amounted only to fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy-nine pounds sterling. After Gen. Washington's elevation to the presidency, he continued to send to the comptrollers of the treasury an annual account of his expenses, which, in some years, amounted to thirty-one thousand dollars. As the salary fixed by law for that office was no more than twenty-five thousand dollars, the excess he paid out of his private funds.

was planned against Canada, the charge of which was assigned to Gens. Schuyler and Montgomery. On the 10th of September, one thousand American troops landed at St. Johns, the first British post in Canada, one hundred and fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga, but found it advisable to retire to the Isle aux Noix, twelve miles south of St. Johns. Here the health of Gen. Schuyler obliged him to return to Ticonderoga, and the command devolved on Gen. Montgomery. This enterprising officer, in a few days, returned to the investment of St. Johns, and on the 3d of November, received the surrender of this important post.

On the surrender of St. Johns, five hundred regulars and one hundred Canadians became prisoners to the provincials. There were also taken thirty-nine pieces of cannon, seven mortars, and five hundred stands of arms.

Gen. Montgomery next proceeded against Montreal, which, without resistance, capitulated. From Montreal he rapidly proceeded towards Quebec.

Before his arrival, however, Col. Arnold, who had been despatched by Gen. Washington with one thousand American troops from Cambridge, had reached Quebec by the way of the Kennebeck, a river of Maine,—had ascended the heights of Abraham, where the brave Wolfe ascended before him; but had found it necessary to retire to a place twenty miles above Quebec, where he was waiting for the arrival of Montgomery.

Seldom was there an expedition attempted during the American war, in which more hardship was endured, or more untiring perseverance manifested, than in this of Arnold's. In ascending the Kennebeck, his troops were constantly obliged to work against an impetuous current, and often to haul their batteaux up rapid currents and over dangerous falls. Nor was their march through the country, by an unexplored route of three hundred miles, less difficult or dangerous. They had swamps and woods,

mountains and precipices alternately to surpass. Added to their other trials, their provisions failed, and, to support life, they were obliged to eat their dogs, cartouch boxes, clothes and shoes. While at the distance of one hundred miles from human habitations, they divided their whole store, about four pints of flour to a man. At thirty miles distance, they had baked and eaten their last pitiful morsel. Yet the courage and fortitude of these men continued unshaken. They were suffering for their country's cause, were toiling for wives and children, were contending for the rights and blessings of freedom. After thirty one days of incessant toil through a hideous wilderness, they reached the habitations of men.

Dec. 1st, Montgomery having effected a junction with Arnold, commenced the siege of Quebec. After continuing the siege nearly a month to little purpose, the bold plan was adopted of attempting the place by scaling the walls. Two attacks were made, at the same time, in different quarters of the town, by Montgomery and Arnold. The attempt, however, proved unsuccessful, and, to the great loss and grief of America, fatal to the brave Montgomery. He fell while attempting to force a barrier, and with him fell two distinguished officers, Capt. M'Pherson, his aid, and Capt Cheeseman.

After this repulse, Arnold retired about three miles from Quebec, where he continued encamped through a rigorous winter. On the return of spring, 1776, finding his forces inadequate to the reduction of Quebec, and not being reinforced, he retired. By the 18th of June, the Americans, having been compelled to relinquish one post after another, had wholly evacuated Canada.

The garrison of Quebec consisted, at the time of the above attack, of about one thousand five hundred men; the American forces were near eight hundred. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was about one hundred, and three hundred were taken prisoners.

The death of General Montgomery was deeply lamented both in Europe and America. "The most powerful speakers in the

British parliament displayed their eloquence in praising his virtues and lamenting his fall." Congress directed a monument to be erected to his memory, expressive of their sense of his high patriotism and heroick conduct.

Section XXII. During this year, 1775, Virginia, through the indiscretion of lord Dunmore, the royal governour, was involved in difficulties little short of those to which the inhabitants of Massachusetts were subjected. From the earliest stages of the controversy with Great Britain, the Virginians had been in the foremost rank of opposition, and, in common with other provinces, had taken measures for defence.

These measures for defence, the royal governour regarded with an eye of suspicion, and attempted to thwart them by the removal of guns and ammunition, which had been stored by the people in a magazine. The conduct of the governour roused the inhabitants, and occasioned intemperate expressions of resentment. Apprehending personal danger, lord Dunmore retired on board the Fowey man of war, from which he issued his proclamations, instituting martial law, and proffering freedom to such slaves as would leave their masters, and repair to the royal standard. Here, also, by degrees, he equipped and armed a number of vessels, and, upon being refused provisions by the provincials, from on shore, he proceeded to reduce the town of Norfolk to ashes. The loss was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds sterling. Nearly six thousand persons were deprived of their habitations.

In like manner, the royal governours of North and South Carolina thought it prudent to retire, and seek safety on board men of war. Royal government generally terminated this year throughout the country, the king's governours, for the most part, abdicating their governments, and taking refuge on board the English shipping.

Section XXIII. Early in the spring of 1776, Gen. Washington contemplated the expulsion of the British army from Boston, by direct assault. In a council of war, it was deemed expedient, however, rather to take possession of, and fortify Dorchester Heights, which commanded the harbour and British shipping. The night of the 4th of March was selected for the attempt. Accordingly, in the evening a covering party of eight hundred, followed by a working party of twelve hundred, with entrenching tools, took possession of the Heights, unobserved by the enemy.

Here they set themselves to work with so much activity, that by morning, they had constructed fortifications which completely sheltered them. The surprise of the British cannot easily be conceived. The English admiral after examining the works, declared that, if the Americans were not dislodged from their position, his vessels could no longer remain in safety in the harbour. It was determined, therefore, by the British, to evacuate Boston, which they now did, and on the 17th, the British troops, under command of lord William Howe, successor of Gen. Gage, sailed for Halifax. General Washington, to the great joy of the inhabitants, army, and nation, immediately marched into the town.

The rear guard of the British was scarcely out of the town, when Washington entered it on the other side, with colours displayed, drums beating, and all the forms of victory and triumph. He was received by the inhabitants, with demonstrations of joy and gratitude. Sixteen months had the people suffered the distresses of hunger* and the outrages of an insolent soldiery.

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* Provisions had been so scarce in Boston, that a pound of fresh fish cost twelve pence sterling, a goose eight shillings and four pence, a turkey

The town presented a melancholy spectacle, at the time the army of Washington entered. One thousand five hundred loyalists, with their families, had just departed on board the British fleet, tearing themselves from home and friends, for the love of the royal cause. Churches were stripped of pews and benches for fuel, shops were opened and rifled of goods to clothe the army, and houses had been pillaged by an unfeeling soldiery.

Section XXIV. While affairs were proceeding thus in the north, an attempt was made, in June and July, to destroy the fort on Sullivan's Island, near Charleston, S. C. by Gen. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker. After an action of upwards of ten hours, the British were obliged to retire, having their ships nearly torn to pieces, and with a loss of two hundred killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was but ten killed, and twenty-two wounded.

The fort was commanded by Col. Moultrie, whose garrison consisted of but three hundred and seventy five regulars, and a few militia. On the fort was mounted twenty-six cannon of eighteen and nine pounders. The British force consisted of two fifty gun ships, and four frigates, each of twenty-eight guns, besides several smaller vessels, with three thousand troops on board. By this repulse of the British, the southern states obtained a respite from the calamities of war for two years and a half.

Among the American troops who resisted the British, in their attack on fort Moultrie, was a sergeant Jasper, whose name has been given to one of the counties in Georgia, in commemoration of his gallant deeds, and who deserves an honourable notice in every history of his country. In the warmest part of the contest, the flag staff was severed by a cannon ball, and the flag fell to the bottom of the ditch, on the outside of the works. This accident was considered, by the anxious inhabitants in Charleston, as putting an end to the contest, by striking the American flag to the enemy. The moment Jasper made the discovery, that the flag had fallen, he jumped from one of the embrasures,

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twelve shillings and six pence, a duck eight shillings and two pence, hens two shillings and one penny per pound. A sheep cost thirty-five shillings sterling, apples thirty-three shillings and four pence per bushel. Fire wood forty-one shillings and eight pence per cord, and finally was not to be procured at any price.

and took up the flag, which he tied to a post, and replaced it on the parapet, where he supported it until another flag staff was procured.

The subsequent activity and enterprise of this patriot induced Col. Moultrie to give him a sort of roving commission, to go and come at pleasure, confident that he was always usefully employed. He was privileged to select such men from the regiment as he should choose, to accompany him in his enterprises. His parties consisted generally of five or six, and he often returned with prisoners, before Moultrie was apprised of his absence. Jasper was distinguished for his humane treatment when an enemy fell into his power. His ambition appears to have been limited to the characteristicks of bravery, humanity, and usefulness to the cause in which he was engaged. By his cunning and enterprise, he often succeeded in the capture of those who were lying in ambush for him. He entered the British lines, and remained several days in Savannah, in disguise, and, after informing himself of their strength and intentions, returned to the American camp with useful information to his commanding officer.

In one of these excursions, an instance of bravery and humanity is recorded, by the biographer of General Marion, which could not be credited if it was not well attested. While he was examining the British camp at Ebenezer, all the sympathy of his heart was awakened by the distresses of a Mrs. Jones, whose husband, an American by birth, had taken the king's protection, and been confined in irons for deserting the royal cause, after he had taken the oath of allegiance. Her well founded belief was, that nothing short of the life of her husband would atone for the offence with which he was charged. Anticipating the awful scene of a beloved husband expiring on the gibbet, had excited inexpressible emotions of grief and distraction. Jasper secretly consulted with his companion, Serjeant Newton, whose feelings for the distressed female and her child were equally excited with his own, upon the practicability of releasing Jones from his impending fate. Though they were unable to suggest a plan of operation, they were determined to watch for the most favourable opportunity, and make the effort.

The departure of Jones and several others, all in irons, to Savannah, for trial, under a guard, consisting of a serjeant, corporal, and eight men, was ordered upon the succeeding morning. Within two miles of Savannah, about thirty yards from the main road, is a spring of fine water, surrounded by a deep and thick underwood, where travellers often halt to refresh themselves with a cool draught from this pure fountain. Jasper and his companion selected this spot as the most favourable for

their enterprise. They accordingly passed the guard, and concealed themselves near the spring.

When the enemy came up, they halted, and two of the guard only remained with the prisoners, while the others leaned their guns against trees in a careless manner, and went to the spring. Jasper and Newton sprung from their place of concealment, seized two of the muskets, and shot the sentinels. The possession of all the arms placed the enemy in their power, and compelled them to surrender. The irons were taken off from the prisoners, and arms put into their hands. The whole party arrived at Perrysburg, the next morning, and joined the American camp. There are but few instances upon record where personal exertions, even for self-preservation from certain prospects of death, would have induced a resort to an act so desperate of execution; how much more laudable was this, where the spring to action was roused by the lamentations of a female unknown to the adventurers!

Subsequently to the gallant defence at Sullivan's Island, Col. Moultrie's regiment was presented with a stand of colours by Mrs. Elliot, which she had richly embroidered with her own hands; and, as a reward of Jasper's particular merits, Governour Rutledge presented him with a very handsome sword. During the assault against Savannah, two officers had been killed and one wounded, endeavouring to plant these colours upon the enemy's parapet of the Springhill redoubt. Just before the retreat was ordered, Jasper endeavoured to replace them upon the works, and while he was in the act, received a mortal wound and fell into the ditch. When a retreat was ordered, he recollected the honourable condition upon which the donor presented the colours to his regiment, and among the last acts of his life, succeeded in bringing them off.

Major Horry called to see him soon after the retreat, to whom, it is said, he made the following communication. "I have got my furlough. That sword was presented to me by Governour Rutledge, for my services in the defence of fort Moultrie. Give it to my father, and tell him I have worn it with honour. If he should weep, tell him his son died in the hope of a better life. Tell Mrs. Elliot that I lost my life, supporting the colours which she presented to our regiment. If you should ever see Jones, his wife and son, tell them that Jasper is gone, but that the rememberance of the battle, which he fought for them, brought a secret joy to his heart when it was about to stop its motion forever." He expired a few minutes after closing this sentence.*

* M'Call's Georgia, Vol. II.

Section XXV. During these transactions in the south, the continental congress was in session, intently observing the aspect of things, and deeply revolving the probable issue of the present important contest. The idea of independence had now been broached among the people, and the way was, in a measure, prepared to bring the subject before the congress.

Accordingly, on the 8th of June, Richard Henry Lee, one of the deputies from Virginia, rose and made a motion to declare America free and independent.

Mr. Lee addressed the house on this motion, and concluded as follows: "Why then do we longer delay, why still deliberate? Let this most happy day give birth to the American republick. Let her arise, not to devastate and conquer, but to re-establish the reign of peace and of the laws. The eyes of Europe are fixed upon us; she demands of us a living example of freedom, that may contrast, by the felicity of the citizens, with the ever increasing tyranny which desolates her polluted shores. She invites us to prepare an asylum, where the unhappy may find solace, and the persecuted repose. She entreats us to cultivate a propitious soil, where that generous plant, which first sprang up and grew in England, but is now withered by the poisonous blasts of Scottish tyranny, may revive and flourish, sheltering under its salubrious and interminable shade, all the unfortunate of the human race.

This is the end presaged by so many omens, by our first victories, by the present ardour and union, by the flight of Howe,* and the pestilence which broke out amongst Dunmore's people,† by the very winds which baffled the enemy's fleets and transports, and that terrible tempest which ingulphed seven hundred vessels upon the coast of Newfoundland. If we are not this day wanting in our duty to our country, the names

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* Alluding to the evacuation of Boston by the British, under Howe, page 170.

† Lord Dunmore, the royal governour of Virginia, retired to the Fowey man of war, as noticed page 169, on board of which, and the other vessels of his squadron, a pestilential malady broke out, which carried off great numbers of the crowd, both white and black, which had thronged the vessels.

of the American legislators will be placed, by posterity, at the side of those of Theseus, of Lycurgus, of Romulus, of Numa, of the three Williams of Nassau, and of all those whose memory has been, and will be for ever dear to virtuous men, and good citizens."

The deputies of Pennsylvania and Maryland not being present, and congress being desirous, by some delay, to evince the maturity of their deliberations, adjourned the further consideration of the subject to the first of July.

On the arrival of the day assigned, the subject was resumed, and on the *4th of July*, 1776, upon the report of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Philip Livingston, the thirteen confederate colonies dissolved their allegiance to the British crown, and declared themselves *Free and Independent*, under the name of the *Thirteen United States of America*.

After specifically enumerating the wrongs received, and declaring these to be sufficient grounds for a separation, they solemnly and deliberately proceeded to the act of separation, in the words following:

"We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour."

The members who composed this congress, all of whom signed the declaration, were,

John Hancock, *President*, from Massachusetts.

New-Hampshire.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode-Island.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New-York.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

New-Jersey.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

Delaware.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read.

Maryland.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Virginia.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jun.
Thomas Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

South Carolina.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Hayward, Jun.
Thomas Lynch, Jun.
Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.
Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

This declaration was received by the people with transports of joy. Public rejoicings took place in various parts of the Union. In New-York, the statue of George III. was taken down, and the lead, of which it was composed, was converted into musket balls. In Boston, the garrison was drawn up in King's street, which from that moment, took the name of *State-street*, and thirteen salutes, by thirteen detachments, into which the troops were formed, were fired; the bells of the town were rung, in token of felicitation, and the evening concluded with the tearing in pieces, and burning, the ensigns of royalty—lions, sceptres, and crowns.

In Virginia, the exultation exceeded description. On learning the measures of Congress, the Virginia convention immediately decreed, that the name of the king should be suppressed in all the publick prayers. They ordained that the great seal of the commonwealth should represent Virtue as the tutelary genius of the province, robed in drapery of an Amazon, resting one hand upon her lance, and holding with the other a sword, trampling upon tyranny, under the figure of a prostrate man, having near him a crown, fallen from his head, and bearing in one hand a broken chain, and in the other a scourge. At the foot was charactered the word Virginia, and round the effigy of virtue was inscribed:—*Sic semper tyrannis.* The reverse represented a group of figures; in the middle stood Liberty, with her wand and cap; on one side was Ceres, with a horn of plenty in the right hand, and a sheaf of wheat in the left; upon the other appeared Eternity, with the globe and the phœnix. At the foot were found these words:—*Deus nobis hæc otia fecit.*

Section XXVI. Soon after the evacuation of Boston by the British troops, Washington, believing that the possession of New-York would be with them a favourite object, determined to make it the head quarters of his army, and thereby prevent their occupation of it, if such a step had been contemplated. Accordingly, he soon removed to that city with the principal part of his troops.

Section XXVII. On the 10th of June, Gen. William Howe, with the army which had evacuated Boston, arrived from Halifax, off Sandy Hook. Here he was soon after joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, from England, with a reinforcement. Their combined forces amounted to twenty-four thousand. On the 2d of August, they landed near the Narrows, nine miles from the city.

Section XXVIII. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, Admiral and Gen. Howe communicated to Washington, that they were commissioned to settle all difficulties, between

Great Britain and the colonies. But, not addressing Washington by the title due to his rank, he thought proper to decline receiving their communication. It appeared, however, that the power of these commissioners extended little farther than, in the language of their instructions, "to grant pardons to such as deserve mercy."

Section XXIX. The American army, in and near New-York, amounted to seventeen thousand two hundred and twenty-five men, a part of whom were encamped near Brooklyn, on Long-Island. On the 27th of August, this body of the Americans, under command of Brigadier Gen. Sullivan, were attacked by the British, under Sir Henry Clinton, Percy, and Cornwallis, and were defeated with the loss of upwards of a thousand men, while the loss of the British amounted to less than four hundred. Gen. Sullivan, and Brigadier Generals Lord Sterling and Woodhull, fell into the hands of the British, as prisoners.

In the heat of the engagement, Gen, Washington had crossed over to Brooklyn from New-York, and on seeing some of his best troops slaughtered, or taken, he uttered, it is said, an exclamation of anguish. But deep as his anguish was, and much as he wished to succour his troops, prudence forbad the calling in of his forces from New-York, as they would, by no means, have sufficed to render his army equal to that of the English.

Section XXX. After the repulse at Brooklyn, perceiving the occupation of his position on Long-Island to be of no probable importance, Washington withdrew his troops to New-York, and soon after evacuated the city, upon which, on the 12th of October, the British entered it.

Seldom, if ever, was a retreat conducted with more ability and prudence, or under more favourable auspices, than that of the American troops from Long-Island. The necessary pre

parations having been made, on the 29th of August, at eight in the evening, the troops began to move in the greatest silence. But they were not on board their vessels before eleven. A violent northeast wind and the ebb tide, which rendered the current very rapid, prevented the passage. The time pressed, however. Fortunately, the wind suddenly veered to the northwest. They immediately made sail, and landed in New-York. Providence appeared to have watched over the Americans. About two o'clock in the morning, a thick fog, and at this season of the year extraordinary, covered all Long-Island, whereas the air was perfectly clear on the side of New-York. Notwithstanding the entreaties of his officers, Washington remained the last upon the shore. It was not till the next morning, when the sun was already high, and the fog dispelled, that the English perceived the Americans had abandoned their camp, and were sheltered from pursuit.

Washington with a part of his troops, retired to White Plains, where he entrenched himself with great care. Here, on the morning of the 28th of September, he was attacked by Generals Clinton and Heister. The loss in the action on each side, was several hundred.—But neither party could claim any decided advantage.

While Washington was retiring from New-York, Sir William Howe seized the opportunity to reduce Fort Washington, on the Hudson, then under the command of Col. Magaw.

Nov. 16th, the English forces invested the fort, and after a severe contest, which continued nearly all day, Col Magaw, finding his ammunition mostly exhausted, surrendered the fort, and with it about two thousand seven hundred men as prisoners of war. The surrender of Fort Washington was followed shortly after, by the surrender of Fort Lee, on the Jersey shore, the garrison abandoning it on the approach of the enemy.

Section XXXI. Washington, having crossed the North River, continued his retreat to Newark, Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton; and thence crossed to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware; Lord Cornwallis being close in his rear. This retreat through New-Jersey was at-

tended by circumstances of deep depression. The Americans had just lost two thousand seven hundred men in Fort Washington; numbers of the militia were daily claiming to be discharged, and some of the leading characters, both in New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, were changing sides, and making peace with the enemy.

In this season of general despondency, congress recommended to each of the States, the observance of a "day of solemn fasting and humiliation before God." At the same time they called upon the States to furnish militia to reinforce the continental army, now so enfeebled as scarcely to amount to three thousand men. Soon after, one thousand five hundred Pennsylvanian militia joined the American standard.

Section XXXII. Notwithstanding the general aspect of affairs, on the part of America, was thus forbidding, the continental congress, so far from betraying symptoms of despair, manifested more confidence than ever; and, as if success must eventually crown their enterprises, calmly occupied themselves in drawing up various *articles of confederation*, and perpetual union between the States.

Such articles were obviously necessary, that the line of distinction between the powers of the respective States, and of congress, should be exactly defined. In this way, only, would collisions be avoided, and the peace and harmony of the union be preserved.

Accordingly, such articles were now digested, and at the sitting of congress, Oct. 4th, 1776, were signed by all the members, and copies immediately sent to the respective assemblies of each State for approbation. The principal articles of confederation were the following.

"They all and each obligate themselves to contribute for the common defence, and for the maintenance of their liberties.

"Each particular state preserved the exclusive right of regu

lating its internal government, and of framing laws in all matters, not included in the articles of confederation, and which would not be prejudicial to it.

"No particular State was either to send, or to receive ambassadors, enter into negotiations, contract engagements, form alliances, or make war, except in the case of sudden attack, with any king, prince or power, whatsoever, without the consent of the United States.

"No individual, holding any magistracy, office, or commission, whatsoever, from the United States, or from any of them, was allowed to accept of any presents, or any office, or title of any kind whatsoever, from any foreign king, prince, or potentate.

"No assembly was to confer titles of nobility.

"No State was to make alliances or treaties of what kind soever, with another, without the consent of all.

"Each particular State had authority to maintain, in peace as well as war, the number of armed ships and of land troops, judged necessary, by the general assembly of all the States, and no more.

"There shall be a publick treasury for the service of the confederation, to be replenished by the particular contributions of each State; the same to be proportioned according to the number of inhabitants, of every age, sex, or condition, with the exception of Indians.

"A general congress was to be convoked every year, on the first Monday of November, to be composed of deputies from all the States; it was invested with all the powers that belonged to the sovereigns of other nations." These powers were exactly enumerated.

"Every individual holding any office, and either wages, salary, or emolument whatsoever, was thereby excluded from congress.

"There was to be a council of state composed of one deputy from each province, nominated annually by his colleagues, of the same State, and in case these should not agree, by the general congress." Each State was to have but one vote.

"During the session, as well as the recess of the general congress, the council of state was to be charged with the management of the publick affairs of the confederation, always restricting itself, however, within the limits prescribed by the laws, and particularly by the articles of the confederation itself."

Section XXXIII. December 25th, at night, Washington recrossed the Delaware into New-Jersey, and, pushing his way rapidly to Trenton,

surprised and took prisoners, on the following day, about one thousand Hessians, then in the service of the British. Having secured these prisoners on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, he marched to Princeton, and attacked a party of British, who had taken refuge in the college. About sixty of the enemy were killed, and three hundred made prisoners.

The successes at Trenton and Princeton revived the desponding friends of independence. During the month of December, a melancholy gloom had overspread the United States. These successes, however, seemed to brighten the prospect, and promise better things. Washington now retired to Morristown, where his army were nearly all inoculated with the small pox, that disease having appeared among the troops, and rendering such a measure necessary. The disease proved mortal but in few instances, nor was there a day in which the soldiers could not, if called upon, have fought the enemy.

Section XXXIV. On the opening of the campaign of 1777, the army of Washington, although congress had offered to recruits bounties in land, and greater wages, amounted to little more than seven thousand men. Towards the latter end of May, Washington quitted his winter encampment at Morristown, and, about the same time, the royal army moved from Brunswick, which they had occupied during the winter. Much shifting of the armies followed, but no definite plan of operation had apparently been settled by either.

Previous to this, however, General Howe sent a detachment of two thousand men, under command of Gen. Tryon, Gen. Agnew, and Sir William Erskine, to destroy some stores and provisions deposited at Danbury, in Connecticut. Meeting

with no resistance they reached Danbury on the 26th of April, and destroyed one thousand eight hundred barrels of beef and pork, and eight hundred of flour, two thousand bushels of grain, clothing for a regiment, one hundred hogsheads of rum, and one thousand seven hundred and ninety tents. Besides the destruction of these articles, the enemy wantonly burned eighteen houses with their furniture, murdered three unoffending inhabitants, and threw them into the flames.

Generals Sullivan, Wooster, and Arnold happening to be in the neighbourhood, hastily collected about six hundred militia, with whom they marched in pursuit, in a heavy rain, as far as Bethel, about two miles from Danbury. On the morning of the 27th of April, the troops were divided, Gen. Wooster with about three hundred men, falling in the rear of the enemy, whil Arnold took post in front, at Ridgefield.

Gen. Wooster proceeded to attack the enemy, in which engagement he was mortally wounded, and from which his troops were compelled to retire. At Ridgefield, Arnold warmly received the enemy on their retreat, and although repulsed, returned to the attack the next day on their march to the Sound. Finding themselves continually annoyed by the resolute and courageous yeomanry of the country through which they passed, they hastened to embark on board their ships, in which they sailed for New-York. Their killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to about one hundred and seventy; the loss of the Americans was not admitted to exceed one hundred. Gen. Wooster, now in his seventieth year, lingered with his wounds until the 2d of May. Congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory. To Gen. Arnold they presented a horse, properly caparisoned, as a reward for his gallantry on the occasion.

At length, the British General Howe, leaving New-Jersey, embarked at Sandy Hook, with sixteen thousand men, and sailed for the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, he landed his troops, at the head of Elk river, in Maryland.

It being now obvious that his design was the occupation of Philadelphia, Washington imme diately put the American army in motion, to wards that place, to prevent, if possible, its fall ing into the hands of the enemy.

The two armies met at Brandywine, Dela ware, on the 11th of September, and after an

engagement, which continued nearly all day, the Americans were compelled to retire.

The loss of the Americans in this action was estimated at three hundred killed, and six hundred wounded. Between three and four hundred, principally the wounded, were made prisoners. The loss of the British was stated at less than one hundred killed, and four hundred wounded.

Not considering the battle of Brandywine as decisive, congress, which was sitting in Philadelphia, recommended to the commander in chief to risk another engagement; preparations for which were accordingly made. Sept. 16th, the two armies drew near to each other, and the advance guards began to skirmish, when they were separated by a heavy rain, which rendered the musketry and ammunition of the armies wholly unfit for action.

Section XXXV. An easy access to Philadelphia was now presented to the enemy, and on the 26th, Howe entered the place without molestation. The principal part of the British army was stationed at Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia. Congress adjourned to Lancaster, and Washington encamped at eighteen miles distance from Germantown.

Section XXXVI. Immediately after the occupation of Philadelphia, the attention of Gen. Howe was drawn to the reduction of some forts on the Delaware, which rendered the navigation of that river unsafe to the British.—Accordingly, a part of the royal army was detached for that purpose. Washington seized the opportunity to attack the remainder at Germantown.

This attack was made Oct. 4th, but, after a severe action, the Americans were repulsed with a loss of double that of the British. The loss of the Americans was two hundred killed, six hundred wounded, and four hundred prisoners; that of the British was about one hundred killed, and five hundred wounded.

After this action, the British removed to Philadelphia, where they continued long inactive. Washington retreated to Skippack creek, and there encamped.

Great was the chagrin of Washington, on account of the repulse at Germantown, which was much increased by the auspicious commencement of the battle, and the flattering prospect of a speedy and complete victory. The ultimate failure of the Americans was attributed to the inexperience of a part of the troops, and to embarrassments arising from a fog which increased the darkness of the night. Congress, however, expressed their approbation of Washington's plan of attack, and highly applauded the courage and firmness of the troops.

Section XXXVII. While such was the progress of military operations in the *middle States*, important events were taking place in the north.

It has already been noticed, that in May, 1775, Ticonderoga and Crown Point had been taken by surprise, by Colonels Allen and Arnold; that in the ensuing fall, Gen. Montgomery had reduced the fort of St. John's, captured Montreal, and made an ineffectual, though desperate assault upon Quebec.

On the return of spring, the American army gradually retired up the St. Lawrence, and after a loss of one post and another, in June, 1776, entirely evacuated Canada.

In the spring of 1777, it was settled in England that an invasion of the States should be attempted from the north, and a communication formed between Canada and New-York. Could such a plan have been executed, it would obviously have precluded intercourse between New-England and the more southern States.

The execution of the plan was committed to Gen. Burgoyne, who left Canada with seven

thousand troops, besides a powerful train of artillery, and several tribes of Indians.*

Section XXXVIII. On the 1st of July, Burgoyne landed and invested Ticonderoga. The American garrison here amounted to three thousand men, under command of Gen. St. Clair, an officer of high standing.

Deeming this force inadequate to maintain the post, especially as Burgoyne had taken possession of Mount Defiance, which commanded Ticonderoga, and not having provisions to sustain the army for more than twenty days, St. Clair perceived no safety for the garrison but in a precipitate flight. Accordingly, on the night of the 5th, Ticonderoga was abandoned. By a circuitous march, St. Clair continued to retreat, first into Vermont, although closely pursued, and thence to Hudson river, where, after having lost one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, with a great quantity of military stores, he joined Gen. Schuyler, commanding the main army of the north. After this junction, the whole army continued to retire to Saratoga and Stillwater, and at length took post on Van Shaick's Island, in the mouth of the Mohawk, on the 18th of August.

After the taking of Ticonderoga, Gen. Burgoyne, with the great body of his troops, proceeded up the lake, and destroyed the American flotilla and a considerable quantity of baggage and stores, which had been deposited at Skeensborough. Having halted at this place for nearly

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* The number of Indian warriours, employed by the British in the revolutionary war, has been estimated at about twelve thousand. See Mass. His. Col. vol. 10. p. 123, where the several tribes are specified, with the number of warriours each tribe furnished.

three weeks, he proceeded to Fort Edward, on the Hudson, where he did not arrive until July 30th, his way having been obstructed by Schuyler's army, which felled a great number of trees across the road, and demolished the bridges, while on their retreat.

Section XXXIX. While Gen. Burgoyne lay at Fort Edward, a detachment of his army of five hundred English and one hundred Indians, under Col. Baum, who had been sent to seize a magazine of stores at Bennington, in Vermont, was totally defeated, and Col. Baum slain, by a party of Vermont troops called Green Mountain Boys, and some New-Hampshire militia, under command of Gen. Stark.

Baum, on his arrival near Bennington, learning that the Americans were strongly entrenched at that place, halted, and despatched a messenger to Gen. Burgoyne, for a reinforcement.

Gen. Stark, now on his march with a body of New-Hampshire militia, to join Gen. Schuyler, receiving intelligence of Baum's approach, altered his movement, and collected his force at Bennington.

Before the expected reinforcement could arrive, Gen. Stark, having added to his New-Hampshire corps a body of Vermont militia, determined to attack Baum in his entrenchments. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, an attack was made, which resulted in the flight of Baum's detachment at the moment in which the reinforcement of troops, despatched by Gen. Burgoyne, arrived. With the assistance of these, the battle was now renewed, but ended in the discomfiture of the British forces, and with a loss, on their part, of about seven hundred in killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred.

Section XL. The battle at Bennington greatly revived the courage of the Americans, and as greatly disappointed the hopes of Gen. Burgoyne, and served materially to embarrass and retard his movements.

The situation of Gen. Burgoyne, at this time, was seriously perplexing, being greatly in want of provisions, and the course of wisdom and pru-

dence being not a little difficult to determine To retreat was to abandon the object of his ex pedition; to advance seemed replete with difficulty and danger. This latter step, however, at length appeared the most judicious.

Accordingly, on the 13th and 14th of September, he passed the Hudson, and advanced upon Saratoga and Stillwater. On the 17th, his army came nearly in contact with that of the American, now commanded by Gen. Gates, who had succeeded Schuyler, August 21; some skirmishing ensued, without bringing on a general battle.

Two days after, the two armies met, and a most obstinate, though indecisive engagement ensued, in which the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, between three and four hundred, and the British about six hundred.

On the 7th of October, the battle was renewed, by a movement of Gen. Burgoyne towards the left of the Americans, by which he hoped to effect his retreat to the lakes. The battle was extremely severe; and darkness only put an end to the effusion of blood.

During the night which succeeded, an attempt was made by the royal army to retreat to Fort Edward.—While preparing to march, intelligence was received that this fort was already in possession of the Americans. No avenue to escape now appeared open. Worn down with constant toil and watching, and having ascertained that he had but three days' provisions, a council of war was called, which unanimously resolved to capitulate to Gen. Gates. Preliminaries were soon after settled, and the army, consisting of five thousand seven hundred effect-

ive men, surrendered prisoners of war on the 17th of October.

Gen. Gates, immediately after the victory, despatched Col. Wilkinson, to carry the happy tidings to Congress. On being introduced into the hall of congress, he said, "The whole British army has laid down arms at Saratoga: our sons, full of vigour and courage, expect your orders: it is for your wisdom to decide where the country may still have need of their services."

Among the romantick incidents of real life, few surpass the adventures of the Baroness de Reidesel and Lady Harriet Ackland, two ladies who had followed the fortunes of their husbands, the Baron de Reidesel and Major Ackland, officers in the army of Gen. Burgoyne, the latter of whom was wounded in the battle of the 9th of October.

On the 7th of October, says the Baroness de Reidesel, our misfortunes began. I was at breakfast with my husband, and heard that something was intended. On the same day I expected Generals Burgoyne, Phillips, and Fraser, to dine with us. I saw a great movement among the troops; my husband told me it was merely a reconnoissance, which gave me no concern, as it often happened. I walked out of the house, and met several Indians in their war dresses, with guns in their hands. When I asked where they were going, they cried out, War! War! meaning that they were going to battle. This filled me with apprehension; and I had scarcely got home, before I heard the reports of cannon and musketry, which grew louder by degrees, till at last the noise became excessive.

About four o'clock in the afternoon, instead of the guests whom I expected, Gen. Fraser was brought on a litter, mortally wounded. The table, which was already set, was removed, and a bed placed, in its stead, for the wounded general. I sat trembling in a corner; the noise grew louder, and the alarm increased; the thought that my husband might be brought in wounded, in the same manner, was terrible to me, and distressed me exceedingly. General Fraser said to the surgeon, "*Tell me if my wound is mortal, do not flatter me.*" The ball had passed through his body, and, unhappily for the general, he had eaten a very hearty breakfast, by which the stomach was distended, and the ball, as the surgeon said, had passed through it.

I heard him often exclaim, with a sigh, "OH FATAL AMBI-

TION! POOR GENERAL BURGOYNE! OH MY POOR WIFE!" He was asked if he had any request to make, to which he replied: "IF GENERAL BURGOYNE WOULD PERMIT IT, HE SHOULD LIKE TO BE BURIED AT 6 O'CLOCK IN THE EVENING, ON THE TOP OF A MOUNTAIN, IN A REDOUBT, WHICH HAD BEEN BUILT THERE." I did not know which way to turn; all the other rooms were full of sick. Towards evening, I saw my husband coming; then I forgot all my sorrows, and thanked God that he was spared to me. He and his aid-de-camp ate, in great haste, with me, behind the house. We had been told, that we had the advantage of the enemy; but the sorrowful faces I beheld told a different tale; and, before my husband went away, he took me one side, and said every thing was going very bad; that I must keep myself in readiness to leave the place, but not to mention it to any one. I made the pretence that I would move, the next morning, into my new house, and had every thing packed up ready.

Lady H. Ackland had a tent, not far from our house, in which she slept, and the rest of the day she was in the camp. All of a sudden, a man came to tell her, that her husband was mortally wounded, and taken prisoner; on hearing this, she became very miserable; we comforted her, by telling her, that the wound was only slight, and, at the same time, advised her to go over to her husband, to do which she would certainly obtain permission, and then she could attend him herself. She was a charming woman, and very fond of him. I spent much of the night in comforting her, and then went again to my children, whom I had put to bed. I could not go to sleep, as I had General Fraser, and all the other wounded gentlemen, in my room; and I was sadly afraid my children would awake, and by their crying, disturb the dying man, in his last moments, who often addressed me, and apologized "*for the trouble he gave me.*"

About three o'clock in the morning, I was told that he could not hold out much longer; I had desired to be informed of the near approach of this sad crisis, and I then wrapped up my children in their clothes, and went with them into the room below.—About eight o'clock in the morning, *he died.* After he was laid out, and his corpse wrapped up in a sheet, we came again into the room, and had this sorrowful sight before us, the whole day; and, to add to the melancholy scene, almost every moment, some officer of my acquaintance was brought in wounded. The cannonade commenced again; a retreat was spoken of, but not the smallest motion was made towards it. About four o'clock in the afternoon, I saw the house, which had just been built for me, in flames, and the enemy was not far off. We

knew that General Burgoyne would not refuse the last request of General Fraser, though, by his acceding to it, an unnecessary delay was occasioned, by which the inconvenience of the army was increased.

At six o'clock, the corpse was brought out, and we saw all the generals attend it to the mountain; the chaplain, Mr. Brudenell, performed the funeral service, rendered unusually solemn and awful, from its being accompanied by constant peals from the enemy's artillery. Many cannon balls flew close by me, but I had my eyes directed towards the mountain, where my husband was standing, amidst the fire of the enemy, and, of course, I could not think of my own danger.

General Gates afterwards said, that if he had known it had been a funeral, he would not have permitted it to be fired on.

As soon as the funeral service was finished, and the grave of Gen. Fraser was closed, an order was issued that the army should retreat. My calash was prepared, but I would not consent to go before the troops. Major Harnange, although suffering from his wounds, crept from his bed, as he did not wish to remain in the hospital, which was left with a flag of truce. When Gen. Reidesel saw me in the midst of danger, he ordered my women and children to be brought into the calash, and intimated to me to depart, without delay. I still prayed to remain; but my husband, knowing my weak side, said, "well then, your children must go, that, at least, they may be safe from danger." I then agreed to enter the calash with them, and we set off at eight o'clock. The retreat was ordered to be conducted with the greatest silence. Many fires were lighted, and several tents left standing. We travelled continually during the night.

At six o'clock in the morning, we halted, which excited the surprise of all. General Burgoyne had the cannon ranged and prepared for battle. This delay seemed to displease every body; for, if we could only have made another good march, we should have been in safety. My husband, quite exhausted with fatigue, came into my calash, and slept for three hours. During that time, Capt. Wilde brought me a bag full of bank notes, and Capt. Geisman his elegant watch, a ring, and a purse full of money, which they requested me to take care of, and which I promised to do to the utmost of my power. We again marched, but had scarcely proceeded an hour before we halted, as the enemy was in sight. It proved to be only a reconnoitering party of two hundred men, who might easily have been made prisoners, if Gen Burgoyne had given proper orders on the occasion.

About evening we arrived at Saratoga; my dress was wet

through and through with rain, and, in that state, I had to remain the whole night, having no place to change it; I however got close to a large fire, and at last lay down on some straw. At this moment, General Phillips came up to me, and I asked him why we had not continued our retreat, as my husband had promised to cover it, and bring the army through? "Poor dear woman," said he, "I wonder how, drenched as you are, you have still the courage to persevere, and venture further in this kind of weather. I wish," continued he, "you was our commanding general. General Burgoyne is tired, and means to halt here to-night, and give us our supper."

On the morning of the 9th, at ten o'clock, General Burgoyne ordered the retreat to be continued, and caused the handsome houses and mills of General Schuyler to be burnt; we marched however but a short distance, and then halted. The greatest misery at this time prevailed in the army, and more than thirty officers came to me, for whom tea and coffee were prepared, and with whom I shared all my provisions, with which my calash was in general well supplied; for I had a cook who was an excellent caterer, and who often, in the night, crossed small rivers, and foraged on the inhabitants, bringing in with him sheep, small pigs, and poultry, for which he often forgot to pay, though he received good pay from me, as long as I had any, and he was, ultimately, handsomely rewarded. Our provisions now failed us, for want of proper conduct in the commissary's department, and I began to despair.

About two o'clock in the afternoon, we again heard a firing of cannon and small arms; instantly all was in alarm, and every thing in motion. My husband told me to go to a house not far off. I immediately seated myself in my calash, with my children, and drove off; but, scarcely had we reached it, before I discovered five or six armed men, on the other side of the Hudson. Instinctively I threw my children down in the calash, and concealed myself with them. At that moment the fellows fired, and wounded an already wounded English soldier, who was behind me. Poor fellow! I pitied him exceedingly, but, at that moment, had no power or means to relieve him. A terrible cannonade was commenced by the enemy, which was directed against the house in which I sought to obtain shelter for myself and children, under the mistaken idea that all the generals were in it. Alas! it contained none but wounded and women; we were at last obliged to resort to the cellar for refuge, and, in one corner of this, I remained the whole day, my children sleeping on the earth, with their heads in my lap; and in the same situation I passed a sleepless night. Eleven cannon balls passed through the house, and we could distinctly hear

them roll away. One poor soldier, who was lying on a table, for the purpose of having his leg amputated, was struck by a shot, which carried away his other leg. His comrades had left him, and, when we went to his assistance, we found him in a corner of the room, into which he had crept, more dead than alive, scarcely breathing. My reflections on the danger to which my husband was exposed now agonized me exceedingly, and the thoughts of my children, and the necessity of struggling for their preservation alone sustained me.

I now occupied myself through the day in attending to the wounded; I made them tea and coffee, and often shared my dinner with them, for which they offered me a thousand expressions of gratitude. One day a Canadian officer came to our cellar, who had hardly the power of holding himself upright, and we concluded he was dying for want of nourishment. I was happy in offering him my dinner, which strengthened him, and procured me his friendship. I now undertook the care of Major Bloomfield, another aid-de-camp of Gen. Phillips, who had received a musket ball through both cheeks, which in its course, had knocked out several of his teeth, and cut his tongue. He could hold nothing in his mouth; the matter which ran from his wound almost choked him, and he was not able to take any nourishment, except a little soup or something liquid. We had some Rhenish wine; and, in the hope that the acidity of it would cleanse the wound, I gave him a bottle of it; he took a little now and then, and with such effect, that his cure soon followed; and thus I added another to my stock of friends, and derived a satisfaction, which, in the midst of sufferings, served to tranquillize me, and diminish their acuteness.

One day, General Phillips accompanied my husband, at the risk of their lives, on a visit to us, who, after having witnessed our situation, said to him, "I would not, for ten thousand guineas, come again to this place, my heart is almost broken."

In this horrid situation we remained six days. A cessation of hostilities was now spoken of, and eventually took place; a convention was afterwards agreed upon; but one day a message was sent to my husband, who had visited me, and was reposing in my bed, to attend a council of war, where it was proposed to break the convention, but, to my great joy, the majority were for adhering to it. On the 16th, however, my husband had to repair to his post, and I to my cellar. This day fresh beef was served out to the officers, who, until now, had only had salt provisions, which was very bad for their wounds.

On the 17th of October, the convention was completed. General Burgoyne and the other generals waited on General Gates, the American commander. The troops laid down their

arms, and gave themselves up prisoners of war, and now, the good woman, who had supplied us with water, at the hazard of her life, received the reward of her services; each of us threw a handful of money into her apron, and she got altogether about twenty guineas. At such a moment as this, how susceptible is the heart of feelings of gratitude!

My husband sent a message to me, to come over to him with my children. I seated myself, once more, in my dear calash, and then rode through the American camp. As I passed on, I observed (and this was a great consolation to me) that no one eyed me with looks of resentment, but that they all greeted us, and even showed compassion in their countenances, at the sight of a woman with small children. I was, I confess, afraid to go over to the enemy, as it was quite a new situation to me. When I drew near the tents, a handsome man approached and met me, *took my children from the calash, and hugged and kissed them, which affected me almost to tears.* "You tremble," said he, addressing himself to me, "be not afraid." "No," I answered, "you seem so kind and tender to my children, it inspires me with courage." He now led me to the tent of Gen. Gates, where I found Generals Burgoyne and Phillips, who were on a friendly footing with the former. Burgoyne said to me, "Never mind, your sorrows have now an end." I answered him that I should be reprehensible to have any cares, as he had none, and I was pleased to see him on such a friendly footing with General Gates. All the generals remained to dine with General Gates.

The same gentleman, who received me so kindly, now came and said to me, "You will be very much embarrassed to eat with all these gentlemen; *Come with your children to my tent; there I will prepare for you a frugal dinner, and give it with a free will.*" I said, "YOU ARE CERTAINLY A HUSBAND AND A FATHER, *you have shown me so much kindness.* I now found that he was GENERAL SCHUYLER. He treated me with excellent smoked tongue, beef steaks, potatoes, and good bread and butter. Never could I have wished to eat a better dinner. I was content. I saw all around me were so likewise; and, what was better than all, my husband was out of danger.

When we had dined, he told me his residence was at Albany, and that General Burgoyne intended to honour him as his guest, and invited myself and children to do likewise. I asked my husband how I should act; he told me to accept the invitation. As it was two days' journey there, he advised me to go to a place, which was about three hours' ride distant. Gen. Schuyler had the politeness to send with me a French officer, a very agreeable man, who commanded the reconnoitering party of

which I have before spoken; and when he had escorted me to the house, where I was to remain, he turned back again. In the house I found a French surgeon, who had under his care a Brunswick officer, who was mortally wounded, and died some days afterwards.

The Frenchman boasted much of the care he took of his patient, and perhaps was skilful enough as a surgeon, but otherwise was a mere simpleton. He was rejoiced when he found I could speak his language, and he began to address many empty and impertinent speeches to me; he said, among other things, he could not believe that I was a general's wife, as he was certain a woman of such rank would not follow her husband. He wished me to remain with him, as he said it was better to be with the conquerers than the conquered. I was shocked at his impudence, but dared not show the contempt I felt for him, because it would deprive me of a place of safety. Towards evening he begged me to take a part of his chamber. I told him I was determined to remain in the room with the wounded officers; whereupon he attempted to pay me some stupid compliments. *At this moment the door opened, and my husband with his aid-de-camp entered.* I then said, "Here, Sir, is my husband;" and at the same time eyed him with scorn, whereupon he retired abashed, nevertheless, he was *so polite* as to offer his chamber to us.

Some days after this we arrived at Albany, where we so often wished ourselves, but we did not enter it as we expected we should, victors! We were received *by the good General Schuyler, his wife, and daughters, not as* enemies, but kind friends; and they treated us with the most marked attention and politeness, as they did General Burgoyne, who had caused General Schuyler's beautifully finished house to be burnt. In fact, they behaved like persons of exalted minds, who determined to bury all recollection of *their own* injuries, in the contemplation of *our* misfortunes. General Burgoyne was struck with General Schuyler's generosity, and said to him, "*You show me great kindness, although I have done you much injury.*" "*That was the fate of war,*" replied the brave man, "*let us say no more about it.*"*

The fortunes of Lady Harriet Ackland were not less interesting than those of the Baroness de Reidesel, just recited. This lady, says General Burgoyne in his "State of the Expedition from Canada," had accompanied her husband to Canada, in

* Wilkinson's Memoirs, from the Memoirs of the Baroness de Reidesel.

the beginning of the year 1776. In the course of that campaign, she traversed a vast space of country, in different extremities of the season, and with difficulties, of which an European traveller cannot easily conceive.

In the opening of the campaign, in 1777, she was restrained from offering herself to a share of the fatigue and hazard expected before Ticonderoga, by the positive injunctions of her husband. The day after the conquest of the place he was badly wounded, and she crossed Lake Champlain to join him.

As soon as he recovered, Lady Harriet proceeded to follow his fortunes through the campaign; and at Fort Edward, or at the next camp, she acquired a two wheel tumbril, which had been constructed by the artificers of the artillery, something similar to the carriage used for the mail, upon the great roads in England. Major Ackland commanded the British grenadiers, which were attached to Gen. Fraser's corps; and consequently were always the most advanced part of the army. They were often so much on the alert, that no person slept out of his clothes. One of their temporary encampments, a tent in which the major and Lady Harriet were asleep, suddenly took fire. An orderly sergeant of grenadiers, with great hazard of suffocation, dragged out the first person he caught hold of. It proved to be the major. It happened that, in the same instant, she had, unknowing what she did, and perhaps not perfectly awaked, providentially made her escape, by creeping under the walls of the tent. The first object she saw, upon the recovery of her senses, was the major on the other side, and in the same instant, again in the fire in search of her. The serjeant again saved him, but not without the major's being very severely burnt in the face, and different parts of his body. Every thing they had with them in the tent was consumed.

This accident happened a little time before the army crossed the Hudson, 13th Sept. It neither altered the resolution or cheerfulness of Lady Harriet; and she continued her progress, a partaker of the fatigues of the advanced corps. The next call upon her fortitude was of a different nature, and more distressing, as of longer suspense. On the morning of the 19th of Sept. the grenadiers being liable to action at every step, she had been directed by the major to follow the route of the artillery and baggage, which were not exposed. At the time the action began, she found herself near an uninhabited hut, where she alighted. When it was found the action was becoming general, the surgeon of the hospital took possession of the same place, as the most convenient for the first care of the wounded. Thus was this lady in the hearing of one continued fire of cannon and musketry for four hours together, with the presumption, from

the post of her husband, at the head of the grenadiers, that he was in the most exposed part of the action. She had three female companions, the Baroness of Reidesel, and the wives of two British officers, Major Hanage and Lieutenant Reynell; but, in the event, their presence served but little for comfort. Major Hanage was soon brought to the surgeon very badly wounded; and a little time after, came intelligence that Lieut. Reynell was shot dead. Imagination will want no help to figure the state of the whole group.

From the date of that action to the 7th of October, Lady Harriet, with her usual serenity, stood prepared for new trials; and it was her lot that their severity increased with their number. She was again exposed to the hearing of the whole action, and, at last, received the word of her individual misfortune, mixed with the intelligence of the general calamity; the troops were defeated, and Major Ackland, desperately wounded, was a prisoner.

The day of the 8th was passed by Lady Harriet and her companions in uncommon anxiety; not a tent nor a shed being standing, except what belonged to the hospital, their refuge was among the wounded and the dying.

"When the army was upon the point of moving, I received a message from Lady Harriet, submitting to my decision a proposal, and expressing an earnest solicitude to execute it, if not interfering with my design, of passing to the camp of the enemy, and requesting Gen. Gates' permission to attend her husband.

"Though I was ready to believe, for I had experienced, that patience and fortitude in a supreme degree, were to be found, as well as every other virtue, under the most tender forms, I was astonished at the proposal. After so long an agitation, exhausted not only for want of rest, but absolutely want of food, drenched in rain for twelve hours together, that a woman should be capable of such an undertaking, as delivering herself to the enemy, probably in the night, and uncertain of what hands she might first fall into, appeared an effort above human nature. The assurance I was enabled to give was small indeed. I had not even a cup of wine to offer; but I was told she found from some kind and fortunate hand, a little rum and dirty water. All I could furnish to her was an open boat, and a few lines, written upon dirty and wet paper, to General Gates, recommending her to his protection."

This letter was as follows:

Sir,—Lady Harriet Ackland, a lady of the first distinction by family, rank, and personal virtues, is under such concern on account of Major Ackland, her husband, wounded and a prison-

er in your hands, that I cannot refuse her request to commit her to your protection.

Whatever general impropriety there may be in persons, acting in your situation and mine, to solicit favours, I cannot see the uncommon pre-eminence in every female grace and exaltation of character in this lady, and her very hard fortune, without testifying that your attentions to her will lay me under obligations.

I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
J. BURGOYNE.

Oct. 9, 1777.
M. G. Gates.

With this letter did this woman, who was of the most tender and delicate frame, habituated to all the soft elegancies and refined enjoyments, that attend high birth and fortune, and far advanced in a state in which the tenderest cares, always due to the sex, become indispensably necessary, in an open boat leave the camp of Burgoyne with a flag of truce for that of the enemy. The night was advanced before the boat reached the shore. Lady Harriet was immediately conveyed into the apartment of Major Henry Dearborn, since Major General, who commanded the guard at that place, and every attention was paid her which her rank and situation demanded, and which circumstances permitted. Early in the morning, she was permitted to proceed in the boat to the camp, where Gen. Gates, whose gallantry will not be denied, stood ready to receive her, with due respect and courtesy. Having ascertained that Major Ackland had set out for Albany, Lady Harriet proceeded, by permission, to join him. Some time after, Major Ackland effected his exchange, and returned to England. The catastrophe of this tale is affecting. Ackland, after his return to England, procured a regiment, and at a dinner of military men, where the courage of the Americans was made a question, took the negative side with his usual decision. He was opposed, warmth ensued, and he gave the lie direct to a Lieutenant Lloyd, fought him, and was shot through the head. Lady Harriet lost her senses, and continued deranged two years; after which she married Mr. Brudenell, who accompanied her from Gen. Burgoyne's camp, when she sought her wounded husband on Hudson river.

Section XLI. It would be difficult to describe the transports of joy which the news of the surrender of Burgoyne excited among the Americans. They now began to look forward to the future with sanguine hopes, and eagerly expect-

ed the acknowledgment of their country's independence by France and other European powers. The capitulation of Gen. Burgoyne, at Saratoga, was soon followed by an acknowledgment of the ndependence of America at the court of France,* and the conclusion of a formal treaty of alliance and commerce between the two countries—an event highly auspicious to the interests of America. The treaty was signed Feb. 6th—"neither of the contracting powers to make war or peace, without the formal consent of the other."

For more than a year, commissioners from congress, at the head of whom was Dr. Franklin, had resided at the court of France, urging the above important steps. But the success of the American struggle was yet too doubtful for that country to embroil herself in a war with Great Britain. The capture of the British army at Saratoga seemed to increase the probability that the American arms would finally triumph, and decided France to espouse her cause.

Section XLII. Upon the conclusion of the campaign of 1777, the British army retired to winter quarters in Philadelphia, and the American army at Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, fifteen miles from Philadelphia.

Scarcely were the American troops established in their encampment, which consisted of huts, before they were in danger of a famine. The adjacent country was nearly exhausted, and that which it might have spared, the inhabitants concealed in the woods. At this time, also, bills of credit had fallen to one fourth of their nominal value, so that one hundred dollars, in paper, would command no more than twenty-five dollars, in specie. In addition to these scenes of perplexity and suffering, the army was nearly destitute of comfortable clothing. Many, for want of shoes, walked barefoot on the frozen ground: few, if any, had blankets for the night. Great numbers sickened. Near three thousand at a time were incapable of bearing arms.

* Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States in 1782; Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in the same month; Spain in March; Russia in July.

While the defenders of the country were thus suffering and perishing, the royal army was enjoying all the conveniences which an opulent city afforded.

Section XLIII. On the alliance of America with France, it was resolved in Great Britain immediately to evacuate Philadelphia, and to concentrate the royal force in the city of New-York. In pursuance of this resolution, the royal army, on the 18th of June, passed the Delaware into New-Jersey, and continued their retreat to New-York.

General Washington, penetrating their design, had already sent forward a detachment to aid the New-Jersey militia, in impeding the progress of the enemy. With the main body of his army, he now crossed the Delaware in pursuit. June 28th, the two armies were engaged at Monmouth, sixty-four miles from Philadelphia, and after a severe contest, in which the Americans, upon the whole, obtained the advantage, were separated only by night. Gen. Washington and his army reposed on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack in the morning. But the British general, during the night, made good his retreat towards New-York.

The sufferings of both armies during this engagement, from the heat of the day, were unparalleled in the history of the revolutionary war. No less than fifty-nine British soldiers perished from heat, and several of the Americans died through the same cause. The tongues of many of the soldiers were so swollen, that it was impossible to retain them in the mouth. The loss of the Americans was eight officers, and sixty-one privates killed, and about one hundred and sixty wounded; that of the British, in killed, wounded, and missing, was three hundred and fifty-eight men, including officers. One hundred were taken prisoners, and one thousand deserted during the march.

Section XLIV. On the 1st of July, Count D'Estaing arrived at Newport, R. I. from France, with twelve ships of the line and six frigates, to act in concert with the Americans in an attempt on Rhode-Island, which had been in possession of the British since December, 1776.

Hearing of this expedition, Admiral Howe followed D'Estaing, and arrived in sight of Rhode-Island the day after the French fleet had entered the harbour of Newport. On the ap

pearance of Howe, the French admiral, instead of co-operating with the Americans, sailed out to give him battle. A storm, however, arising, separated the fleets. D'Estaing entered Boston to repair. Howe, after the storm, returned to Rhode-Island, and landed Sir Henry Clinton, with four thousand troops—but, fortunately, the Americans had raised the siege of Newport the day before, and left the island.—Sir Henry Clinton soon after sailed again for New-York.

Section XLV. Hitherto the conquest of the States had been attempted, by proceeding from north to south; but that order, towards the close of this year, began to be inverted, and the southern States became the principal theatre on which the British conducted their offensive operations.

Georgia, being one of the weakest of the Southern States, was marked out as the first object of attack, in that quarter of the union.

In November, Col. Campbell was despatched from New-York by Gov. Clinton, with a force of two thousand men, against Savannah, the capital of that State. This expedition proved successful, and Savannah, and with it the State of Georgia itself, fell into the power of the English.

On the arrival of Campbell and his troops at Savannah, he was opposed by Gen. Howe, the American officer, to whom was intrusted the defence of Georgia. His force, consisting of only 600 continentals, and a few hundred militia, was inadequate, however, to resist the enemy. After an engagement, in which the Americans killed upwards of one hundred, and took about four hundred and fifty prisoners, with several cannon, and large quantities of military stores, the capital surrendered.

In the succeeding year, 1779, Count D'Estaing, who, after repairing his fleet at Boston, had sailed for the West Indies, returned with a design to co-operate with the Americans against the common enemy. In Sept. he arrived upon the coast of Georgia so unexpectedly that the Experiment, a man of war of fifty guns, and three frigates, fell into his hands. As soon as his arrival was known, Gen. Lincoln marched with the army under his command, and some militia of South Carolina and Georgia,

to co-operate with him in the reduction of Savannah. Before Lincoln arrived, D'Estaing demanded the surrender of the town. This demand, General Prevost, the English commander, requested a day to consider, which was incautiously granted. Before the day expired, a reinforcement of eight hundred men joined the standard of Prevost from Beaufort, whereupon he bid defiance to D'Estaing. On the arrival of Lincoln, it was determined to lay siege to the place. Much time was spent in preparation, but in an assault under D'Estaing and Lincoln, the Americans suffered so severely, both as to their numbers, and in their works, that it was deemed expedient to abandon the project. Count D'Estaing re-embarked his troops, and left the continent.

While the siege of Savannah was pending, one of the most extraordinary enterprises ever related in history, one, indeed, which nothing, but the respectability of the testimony, could have prevented our considering as marvellous, occurred. It was an enterprise conceived and executed by Colonel John White of the Georgia line. A Captain French, of Delancey's first battalion, was posted with one hundred men, British regulars, on the Ogeechee river, about twenty-five miles from Savannah. There lay also at the same place five armed vessels, the largest mounting fourteen guns, and having on board altogether forty-one men. Col. White, with Captain Etholm, three soldiers, and his own servant, approached this post, on the evening of the 30th of September, kindled a number of fires, arranging them in the manner of a large camp, and summoned French to surrender, he and his comrades in the mean time riding about in various directions, and giving orders in a loud voice, as if performing the duties of the staff, to a large army. French, not doubting the reality of what he saw, and anxious to spare the effusion of blood, which a contest with a force so superior would produce, surrendered the whole detachment, together with the crews of the five vessels, amounting in all to one hundred and forty-one men, and one hundred and thirty stands of arms!

Col White had still, however, a very difficult game to play; it was necessary to keep up the delusion of Capt. French, until the prisoners should be secured; and with this view, he pretended that the animosity of his troops was so ungovernable, that a little stratagem would be necessary to save the prisoners from their fury, and that he should therefore commit them to the care of three guides, with orders to conduct them to a place of safety. With many thanks for the colonel's humanity, French accepted the proposition, and marched off at a quick pace, under the direction of three guides, fearful, at every step,

that the rage of White's troops would burst upon them in defiance of his humane attempts to restrain them. White, as soon as they were out of sight, employed himself in collecting the militia of the neighbourhood, with whom he overtook his prisoners, and they were conducted in safety for twenty-five miles, to an American fort.*

Section XLVI. The campaign of 1779 was distinguished for nothing splendid, or decisive, on the part either of America or England.

The British seemed to have aimed at little more than to distress, plunder, and consume, it having been, early in the year, adopted as a principle upon which to proceed, "to render the colonies of as little avail as possible to their new connections."

Actuated by these motives, an expedition was fitted out from New-York for Virginia, which, in a predatory incursion, took possession of large naval stores, magazines of provisions, and great quantities of tobacco. After enriching themselves with various kinds of booty, and burning several places, they returned to New-York.

Soon after this expedition to Virginia, a similar one, under the command of the infamous Gov. Tryon, was projected against the maritime parts of Connecticut. During this expedition, New-Haven was plundered; East-Haven, Fairfield, Norwalk, and Green's Farms, were wantonly burnt.

In an account of the devastations made by the English in this expedition, which was transmitted to Congress, it appeared that at Fairfield there were burnt two houses of publick worship, fifteen dwelling houses, eleven barns, and several stores. At Norwalk, two houses of publick worship, eighty dwelling houses, sixty-seven barns, twenty-two stores, seventeen shops, four mills and five vessels. In addition to this wanton destruction of pro-

* Allen's Revolution.

perty, various were the acts of brutality, rapine, and cruelty, committed on aged persons, women, and prisoners. At New-Haven, an aged citizen, who laboured under a natural inability of speech, had his tongue cut out by one of the royal army. At Fairfield the deserted houses of the inhabitants were entered, desks, trunks, closets, and chests, were broken open and robbed of every thing valuable. Women were insulted, abused, and threatened, while their apparel was taken from them. Even an infant was robbed of its clothes, while a bayonet was pointed at the breast of its mother.

About this time General Putnam, who had been stationed with a respectable force at Reading, in Connecticut, then on a visit to his out-post, at Horse Neck, was attacked by Governour Tryon, with one thousand five hundred men. Putnam had only a picket of one hundred and fifty men, and two field pieces, without horses or drag-ropes. He however placed his cannon on the high ground, near the meeting house, and continued to pour in upon the advancing foe, until the enemy's horse appeared upon a charge. The general now hastily ordered his men to retreat to a neighbouring swamp, inaccessible to horse, while he himself put spurs to his steed, and plunged down the precipice at the church.

This is so steep, as to have artificial stairs, composed of nearly *one hundred stone steps*, for the accommodation of worshippers ascending to the sanctuary. On the arrival of the dragoons at the brow of the hill, they paused, thinking it too dangerous to follow the steps of the adventurous hero. Before any could go round the hill and descend, Putnam had escaped, uninjured by the many balls which were fired at him in his descent; but one touched him, and that only passed through his hat. He proceeded to Stamford, where, having strengthened his picket with some militia, he boldly faced about and pursued Gov. Tryon on his return.*

While the British were proceeding in these desolating operations, Gen. Washington was loudly called upon by the suffering inhabitants, for continental troops to resist them; but his circumstances permitted him to spare but few. Had he listened to their calls, and divided his army conformably to the wishes of the invaded citizens, he would have exposed his whole force to ruin. Choosing rather to bear the reproaches which were by some heaped upon him, than to hazard the loss of every thing, he kept his army concentrated on both sides of the North River, at some distance from New-York, to prevent, if possible, the

* Ramsay.

British from possessing themselves of West Point, sixty miles north of New-York, a post which they eagerly coveted, and the possession of which would have given them incalculable advantage over that part of the country.

Section XLVII. The exertions of the Americans, during this campaign, were still more feeble than those of the enemy. Scarcely an expedition was planned which merits any notice, and, with the exception of the reduction of Stoney Point, forty miles north of New-York, on the Hudson, scarcely any thing was accomplished of importance. The reduction of this place July 15th, was one of the most bold enterprises which occurred in the history of the war.

At this time, Stoney Point was in the condition of a real fortress; it was furnished with a select garrison of more than six hundred men, and had stores in abundance, and defensive preparations which were formidable.

Fortified as it was, Gen. Washington ventured an attempt to reduce it. The enterprise was committed to Gen. Wayne, who, with a strong detachment of active infantry, set out towards the place, at noon. His march of fourteen miles, over high mountains, through deep morasses, and difficult defiles, was accomplished by eight o'clock in the evening.

At the distance of a mile from the Point, Gen. Wayne halted, and formed his men into two columns, putting himself at the head of the right. Both columns were directed to march in order and silence, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets. At midnight they arrived under the walls of the fort. "An unexpected obstacle now presented itself: the deep morass, which covered the works, was at this time, overflowed by the tide. The English opened a tremendous fire of musketry and of cannon loaded with grape shot: but neither the inundated morass, nor a double palisade, nor the storm of fire that was poured upon them, could arrest the impetuosity of the Americans; they opened their way with the bayonet, prostrated whatever opposed them, scaled the fort, and the two columns met in the centre of the works. The English lost upwards of six hundred men in killed and prisoners. The conquerors abstained from pillage, and from all disorder; a conduct the more worthy, as they had still present in mind, the ravages and butcheries, which their enemies had so recently committed in Virginia and

Connecticut. Humanity imparted new effulgence to the victory which valour had obtained."*

Section XLVIII. Another expedition, planned and executed this year, entitled to some notice, was one under Gen. Sullivan, against the Six Nations, which, with the exception of the Oneidas, had been induced, by the English, to take up arms against America.

At the head of between four and five thousand men, Gen. Sullivan marched into the country, up the Susquehannah, and attacked the Indians, in well constructed fortifications. The resistance of the savages was warlike. Being overpowered, however, they were obliged to flee. Gen. Sullivan, according to his instructions, proceeded to lay waste their country. Forty villages were consumed, and one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of corn were destroyed.

Section XLIX. It has already been stated, that the campaign of 1779 was remarkable for the feeble exertions of the Americans. Among the causes which contributed to lessen their activity, the failure of the French fleet, in every scheme undertaken for their benefit, was no inconsiderable one. America had expected much from an alliance with France, and looked to the French fleet under D'Estaing, to hasten the downfall of British power in the country. But when they perceived nothing equal to their expectation accomplished, they became despondent, and exertion was enfeebled.

But another, and a still more powerful cause of these feeble exertions, on the part of the Americans, was the daily depreciation of their bills of credit.

* Botta.

As the contest between England and America originated in the subject of taxation, it was early perceived, by the continental congress, that the imposition of taxes, adequate to the exigencies of war, even if practicable, would be impolitick. The only expedient, therefore, in their power to adopt, was the emission of bills of credit, representing specie, under a publick engagement, ultimately to redeem those bills, by an exchange of gold or silver.

Accordingly, in June, 1775, on the resolution to raise an army, congress issued bills of credit, to the amount of two millions of dollars. This emission was followed, the next month, by the issue of another million. For their redemption, the confederated colonies were pledged—each colony to provide means to pay its proportion, by the year 1779.

In the early periods of the war, the enthusiasm of the people for liberty made them comparatively indifferent to property. The cause was popular, and the publick credit good. Bills of credit, therefore, by common consent, rapidly circulated, and calculations about private interest were, in a great measure, suspended.

It was obvious, however, that there was a point, beyond which the credit of these bills would not extend. At the expiration of eighteen months from their first emission, when about twenty millions had been issued, they began to depreciate. At first, the diminution of their value was scarcely perceptible, but from that time it daily increased.

Desirous of arresting the growing depreciation, congress at length resorted to loans and taxes. But loans were difficult to negociate, and taxes, in several of the States, could not be collected. Pressed with the necessities of an army, congress found themselves obliged to continue to issue bills, after they had begun to depreciate, and to pay that depreciation, by increasing the sums emitted. By the year 1780, the amount in circulation was the overwhelming sum of two hundred millions.

The progress of this depreciation is worthy of notice.—Towards the close of 1777, the depreciation was two or three for one; in '78, five or six for one; in '79, twenty-seven or twenty-eight for one; in '80, fifty or sixty for one, in the first four or five months. From this date, the circulation of these bills was limited, but where they passed, they soon depreciated to one hundred and fifty for one, and finally, several hundreds for one.

Several causes contributed to sink the value of the continental currency. The excess of its quantity at first begat a natural depreciation. This was increased by the enemy, who counterfeited the bills, and spread their forgeries through the States. Publick agents, who received a commission to the amount of

their purchases, felt it to be their interest to give a high price for all commodities. These causes, co-operating with the decline of publick confidence, and the return of more selfish feelings, rapidly increased the depreciation, until bills of credit, or what has been commonly called, "continental currency," became of little or no value.

The evils which resulted from this system were immense. Under it, it became extremely difficult to raise an army, and to provide necessaries for its subsistence. At the same time, it originated discontents among the officers and soldiers, since their pay, in this depreciated currency, was inadequate to the support of their families at home. "Four months pay, of a private, would not procure his family a single bushel of wheat, and the pay of a colonel would not purchase oats for his horse." Under circumstances like these, it reflects the highest honour upon Washington, that his wisdom and prudence should have been able to keep an army together.

In addition to these evils, which fell so heavily upon the army, others, not less deplorable, fell upon the community. In order to prevent the growing depreciation of their bills, congress directed that they should be a legal tender. But this, while it did not much retard the regular diminution of their value, was the source of immeasurable injustice and distress.

The aged, who had retired to enjoy the fruits of their industry, found their substance but a scanty pittance. The widow was compelled to take a shilling, where a pound was her due, and the orphan was obliged to discharge an executor on the payment of sixpence on the pound. In many instances, the earnings of a long life were, in a few years, reduced to a trifling sum.

Had congress foreseen these evils, they would have guarded against them. But it was a day of poverty and experiment. They designed no injustice. They had placed before them the freedom of the country from the yoke of British dominion, and if, in their zeal to effect it, they sometimes erred, the sufferings which resulted from their ignorance have been a thousand times compensated, by the subsequent enjoyments of a free and independent people.

Section L. Towards the close of the year 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, committing the English garrison of New-York to Gen. Kniphausen, embarked with a force of between seven and eight thousand men, for the reduction of Charles-

ton, South Carolina, which important object he accomplished on the 12th of May, 1780.

After a tempestuous voyage of some weeks, in which several transports were lost, the army arrived at Savannah, whence they sailed on their destined purpose. On the 2d of April, 1780, Gen. Clinton opened his batteries against Charleston. Gen. Lincoln, at this time, commanded the American forces of the south. Urged by the inhabitants, on the approach of the enemy, to continue in Charleston, and assist in repelling the attack, he consented to remain, and, with Gov. Rutledge, industriously forwarded preparations for defence.

Notwithstanding these preparations, the batteries of the enemy soon obtained a decided superiority over those of the town, and left but little reason to the besieged to hope that they should be able to defend the place. A council of war, held on the 21st, agreed that a retreat would probably be impracticable, and advised that offers of capitulation should be made to Gen. Clinton, which might admit of the army's withdrawing, and afford security to the persons and property of the inhabitants.

On the proposal of these terms, they were rejected. Hostilities were now renewed by the garrison, and returned with unusual ardour by the British. On the 11th of May, finding the longer defence of the place impracticable, a number of citizens addressed Gen. Lincoln, advising him to capitulate. Acquiescing in the measure, painful as it was, Gen. Lincoln again presented terms of capitulation, which being accepted, the American army, amounting to 5000, together with the inhabitants of the place, and four hundred pieces of artillery, were surrendered to the British.

The loss on both sides, during the siege, was nearly equal. Of the royal troops, seventy-six were killed, and one hundred and eighty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, eighty-nine were killed, and one hundred and forty wounded. By the articles of capitulation, the garrison was to march out of town, and to deposit their arms in front of the works, but, as a mark of humiliation, which, eighteen months afterwards, was remembered and retaliated on Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, the drums were not to beat a British march, nor the colours to be uncased.

Section LI. Shortly after the surrender of Charleston, Sir Henry Clinton, leaving four thousand men for the southern service, under Lord Cornwallis, returned to New-York. British garrisons were now posted in different parts of the State of South Carolina, to awe the in-

habitants, and to secure their submission to the British government.

The spirit of freedom, however, still remained with the people, nor was it easy to subdue that spirit, how much soever it might be temporarily repressed, by royal and oppressive menace.

Notwithstanding the efforts of his majesty's servants to preserve quietness, the month of July did not pass by in peace. General Sumpter, a man ardently attached to the cause of liberty, in several engagements in South Carolina, with the English and their partizans, gained great advantages over them, and in one instance, reduced a regiment—the prince of Wales'—from two hundred and seventy-eight to nine.

While Sumpter was thus keeping up the spirits of the people by a succession of gallant exploits, a respectable force was advancing through the middle States, for the relief of their southern brethren.

We shall interrupt the thread of our history to relate the personal adventures of Major General Wadsworth, in the district of Maine, during the spring of this year, 1780. He had been sent by the legislature of Massachusetts, to command in that part of the country. Having attended to the objects of his mission during the summer of '79, and the principal part of the succeeding winter, he dismissed his troops towards the end of February, and began to prepare for his return to Boston. He had been accompanied during this time by Mrs. Wadsworth, and a friend of hers, Miss Fenno, of that place.

His preparations, however, were discovered by a disaffected inhabitant in the neighbourhood, who gave intelligence to the commander of the British fort at Bagaduce, and assured him that the general might easily be made a prisoner. No time was lost. Twenty-five soldiers, with the proper officers, were soon embarked on board a vessel, in which they proceeded to an inlet, four miles from the general's quarters. Here they landed under cover of night, and lying concealed till near midnight, they proceeded on their destined purpose.

The nature of the ground was such as to conceal them, until they had arrived at the house. The sentinel, being surprised,

sprung into the kitchen door, and was followed by a volley from the assailants, and by some of the assailants themselves. Another party blew in the windows of the General's bed-room, whilst a third party, forcing the windows of Miss Fenno, rushed into her apartment.

The general's room being barred, he determined to make what resistance he was able. Accordingly, as the assailants approached his apartment, he repeatedly discharged his pistols, a blunderbuss, and fusee. At length a ball from the kitchen broke his arm, and terminated the contest.

The party, apprehensive of danger, now retired in haste, taking with them the wounded general, but leaving his wife and Miss Fenno, to emotions the most intense. After proceeding with some difficulty near a mile, General Wadsworth was put on a horse, behind a mounted soldier, and being warned that silence alone would ensure his safety, the party at length reached the vessel, which immediately sailed for the fort.

Near the close of the day the party arrived with their charge. General Wadsworth landed amidst the shouts of a multitude, which had assembled to see the man, who had justly excited their admiration, by his enterprises in that quarter, and, under a guard, was conducted to the officers' guard room. Here his wounds were dressed; a room in the officers' barracks was assigned him, and through the civility of General Campbell, the commandant of the fort, who often visited him, his situation was rendered as comfortable as could be expected.

General Wadsworth, however, was a prisoner and alone. Nothing could supply the place of freedom, to which a spirit like his constantly aspired, or of domestick happiness, which, though a soldier of the most ardent stamp, he well knew how to appreciate. Added to this, his wound, during the first two weeks, had become so inflamed as to confine him entirely to his room.

At the expiration of this time, he had the happiness to hear from his wife by means of an officer, bearing a flag of truce, who at his request had been despatched by General Campbell with a letter to her, and another to the governour of Massachusetts. The intelligence he received from Mrs. Wadsworth, of her safety, and especially of that of his little son, who he supposed had been killed the night he was taken prisoner—was peculiarly gratifying. So far from having been injured, his son had slept amidst all the horrors of the scene, and only knew of the transactions of the dreadful night, by the devastations he saw around him in the morning.

At the end of five weeks, when his wounds were nearly healed, the general requested the customary privilege of a parole. Cir-

cumstances, however, existed which rendered it necessary to deny him, and he acquiesced. About this time Mrs. Wadsworth and Miss Fenno, under protection of a passport from General Campbell, visited him. The visit lasted ten days, to their mutual satisfaction.

In the mean time, orders respecting him had arrived from the commanding general at New-York. Of the tenor of these orders, General Wadsworth was ignorant, but their unpropitious nature was indicated by the change of conduct and counte nance in some of the officers. Miss Fenno had accidentally learned their import, but she carefully concealed her knowledge, until the moment of her departure, when, to prevent suspicion, she barely said, "General Wadsworth, take care of yourself." From the servants, not long after, he learned that instead of being exchanged, he was to be sent to England.

In the course of some days, Major Benjamin Burton, a brave officer, was conveyed as a prisoner to Bagaduce, and lodged in the same room with General Wadsworth. He confirmed the report of the servants respecting the transportation of the general to England, and learned, not long after, that he himself was destined to a similar fate. The monitory caution of Miss Fenno was now explained, and the general plainly saw the importance of attending to it. These officers were not long in deciding that they would not cross the Atlantick; and though scarcely a ray of hope presented itself to encourage them, they nevertheless resolved to attempt to escape.

Bagaduce, on which the fort stands, is a peninsula of moderate extent, washed by considerable waters on every side, except the sandy beach which connects it with the main land on the west. The fort stands on the middle of the peninsula. The prisoners were confined in a grated room in the officers' barracks. The walls of the fort, exclusively of the depth of the ditch surrounding it, were twenty feet high, with frasing on the top, and chevaux-de-frise below. Sentinels were stationed in every place in and about the fortress, where their presence could be supposed to be necessary. Escape, therefore, seemed almost impracticable.

After several plans proposed by the prisoners for their escape, they settled at length upon the following. As the room in which they were confined was ceiled with boards, they determined to cut off one of these so as to admit their entrance. After passing through, they proposed to creep along one of the joists to which these boards were nailed, and thus to pass over the room adjoining it, which belonged to the officers, until they should come to the middle entry, and then by a blanket, which was to be taken with them, to let themselves down in this entry.

In case of being observed, they agreed upon several stratagems to be employed, in order that their attempt might be crowned with success.

In agreement with this plan, after the sentinel had taken the required precaution in regard to the prisoners, and seen them in bed, General Wadsworth arose, and attempted to make the necessary incision into the board with his knife. But he found the attempt useless, and hazardous, since it could be done neither with the necessary expedition nor without noise. This part of the design was therefore abandoned. He, however, soon found means, through the agency of a soldier, who was his barber, to procure a gimblet without exciting a suspicion as to the purpose for which he intended it.

On the succeeding night, they made the attempt with their gimblet, but this also occasioned too much noise. They resolved next to make the experiment in the day time; and although two sentinels in walking the entry every moment or two passed by their door, which had a glass window in it, and although they were exposed every hour to the intrusion of their servants, or of the officers of the fort, they succeeded in perforating the ceiling from time to time. The stratagem was simply this. As the sentinels were in the habit of pacing the entry backwards and forwards, the prisoners would commence the same tour in their own room, being careful to keep time with them, and both to pass at the same instant by the glass door; but as the sentinels had to go twice the length the prisoners had, this afforded an opportunity for one of the latter to be engaged with the gimblet in the mean time, and then to join his companion as the sentinels came back.

In this manner a sufficient number of holes were bored in the course of three weeks. The small spaces between the holes were cut with a pen-knife, except one at each corner, in order to hold the piece in its proper place, till they were ready finally to remove it. The wounds in the mean time were covered over with a paste made of chewed bread, resembling the colour of the board, and the dust was carefully swept from the floor. All this was done without suspicion from any quarter.

Their conveyance to New-York, or Halifax, and thence to England, was understood to be by a privateer, which was then on a cruise, but was soon expected to return. Their attention of course was arrested by every thing which they heard relative to this vessel, and they made every unsuspicious inquiry in their power, concerning the situation of the fort, the posting of the sentinels, and similar subjects. The information thus obtained, enabled General Wadsworth, who had previously some

knowledge of the place, to form a correct view of the whole ground.

During this time they made what little preparations they were able, as to provisions, and other things, that related to their intended escape. At the end of three weeks they were all ready. The privateer was daily expected to return, which would disconcert all their purposes, and they wished nothing more than such an opportunity as a dark and rainy night would afford, in order to their deliverance. During a whole week no such opportunity offered, and, together with this fact, some circumstances, tending to excite a belief that their design was suspected, occurred, and rendered their anxiety extreme.

At length the favourable occasion was presented. A storm on the 18th of June brought on an unusual degree of darkness and rain. At about eleven o'clock the prisoners retired apparently to rest, while the sentinel was looking through the glass door. No sooner, however, were their lights extinguished, than they arose; their first object was to cut the corners of the board, through which they were to make their escape. An hour was spent in accomplishing this purpose, and as it was attended with considerable noise, it was not done without danger.

Burton first passed through the aperture. His size rendered it a difficult attempt. The general, although smaller, found even greater difficulty from the weakness of his arm. But the urgency of the case induced him to put forth every effort. By means of a chair, on which he stood, and a blanket fastened with a skewer put through the hole, he raised himself through. The noise made by these attempts, and even the cackling of the fowls that roosted above the rooms were unheeded, being drowned by the torrents of rain pouring incessantly on the roof of the building.

By agreement, when Burton had reached the middle entry, he was to wait for the general; the latter, however, when he had gained the place was unable to find him, but judging from appearances that he had escaped through the door, he followed on. Passing partly round the building in order to gain the western side, he felt his way directly under the eaves, lest he should strike against some person, an event to which he was exposed in consequence of the extreme darkness. From this point he made his way towards the neighbouring wall of the fort, but was unable to climb the bank until he had found out an oblique path.

Just as he had gained the place on the north bastion, where Burton and himself had agreed to cross the wall, the guard house door, on the opposite side of the fort, was thrown open,

and the words "Relief turn out" were dictinctly sounded. At this instant he heard a scrambling in a contrary direction, which he knew must be made by his companion. This was a critical moment. The general was in danger of being trod on by the guard, as they came around on the top of the wall, and he barely prevented this catastrophe, by getting himself and his wet blanket upon the fraising, which was the outward margin of the wall.

After the guard had passed on, by means of his blanket, fastened round a picket of the fraising, he let himself down as near the ground as the length of the blanket would admit, and then let go his hold, and fell without injury. Having made several movements with great silence, in order to clear himself from the works connected with the fort, he at length found himself descending the declivity of the hill, into the open field. All this was done, not without extreme difficulty, owing to the lameness of his arm. No indications appeared that he was as yet discovered.

As the rain and darkness continued, he groped his way to an old guard house on the shore of the back cove. At this building he and his companion had agreed to meet, should they have been previously separated. Burton, however, after a long search was not to be found. Accordingly the general prepared to cross the cove, and happily succeeded, as the time was that of low water. It was now about two o'clock in the morning, and he had proceeded a mile and a half from the fort. His course lay up a sloping acclivity, which at the time happened to be overspread with trees, a circumstance that greatly impeded his progress. He proceeded a mile over the ground, till he reached the summit, where he found a road, which, however, he soon left for the woods, in order to make his way to the river. Here the day dawned, and he heard the reveillé beat at the fort. At sun-rise he reached the eastern shore of the Penobscot. Choosing however not to cross the river at that place, he continued his way still higher up at the foot of the bank, passing near the water, so as to have his steps washed by the tide. By this means he hoped to be secure from the blood-hounds kept at the fort. Having reached a place at a distance of seven miles from the fort, where it was necessary for him to cross the river, and where he found a canoe lying on the shore, he concluded to rest for a time, and dry his clothes. While in this situation, what was his joy to descry his friend Burton approaching him, in the very track which he himself had taken.

The major, after having passed through the hole in the ceiling, immediately made his way into the second entry, and concluding that his friend would be unable to pass through the hole,

for want of assistance in the room, thought it best to complete his escape alone. He met with little difficulty till the door of the guard room was suddenly opened, and supposing that a discovery had taken place, he immediately leaped from the wall; fortunately receiving no injury, though his life was singularly exposed by the leap, he easily escaped into the open ground.

Mistaking the ground he should have taken, Burton suddenly found himself near a sentinel, who was one of a picket guard, stationed not far from the isthmus. As however he was not perceived, he found means silently to withdraw from his unwelcome neighbour, and entering the water on the side of the isthmus next the river, he passed over to the opposite side above the picket. This undertaking was hazardous in the extreme, and cost him an hour's excessive toil. Chilled and exhausted he then took his way through the forest, which the general had taken before, and by this means rejoined him.

The two friends entered the canoe, and as they were in the expectation of being pursued by the enemy, they proposed to cross the river obliquely. While executing this project, a barge belonging to the British came in sight at some distance. Circumstances, however, favoured the concealment of the officers, and by hard rowing they landed out of reach of their pursuers. For greater safety they abandoned the shore, and directed their course through the forests towards the head of St. George's river. A compass which Burton had fortunately retained was their guide. Though greatly incommoded by showers, heat, and the obstructions of a forest, they travelled twenty-five miles by sun-set.

They made less progress however the next day; and on the third day, General Wadsworth, from soreness, lameness, and fatigue, proposed to stop where he was, until his friend, by proceeding onward to the nearest settlement, could bring him relief. To this plan, however, Burton strenuously objected. They then both proposed to refresh themselves with a little sleep. This they did in the heat of the day, and found the effect so beneficial, that they were invigorated to pursue their journey, which they finished at six o'clock, P. M., by reaching the settlements towards which they had directed their course. The inhabitants flocked around them with the strongest expressions of joy, and having formed themselves into a guard for their protection, conducted these officers to an inn, not far from the place where the general was taken prisoner. Parties of the enemy were lurking round in order to way-lay them, and they were saved from falling again into their hands only by the defence which was so generously afforded them. Burton soon reached his family. General Wadsworth set out for Portland

where he expected to find Mrs. Wadsworth. But she and Miss Fenno had sailed for Boston, before his arrival.

He immediately proceeded to join them at that place. On his arrival, he found that they had suffered much from the want of money and friends, besides being nearly shipwrecked on their way. The past however was forgotten in the felicities of the present and in gratitude to a kind Providence, through which they had escaped perils both by sea and land.*

Section LII. The southern army, now placed under the command of Gates, the hero of Saratoga—General Lincoln having been superseded, amounted to four thousand; but of these scarcely one thousand were regular troops, the rest consisting of militia, from North Carolina, Maryland, and Virginia.

As this army approached South Carolina, Lord Rawdon, who commanded on the frontier, under Lord Cornwallis, concentrated the royal forces, two thousand in number, at Camden, one hundred and twenty miles northwest from Charleston. Here Cornwallis, on learning the movements of the Americans, joined him.

On the morning of the 16th of August, the two armies met, and a severe and general action ensued, in which, through the unpardonable failure of the militia, the British gained a decided advantage.

At the first onset, a large body of the Virginia militia, under a charge of the British infantry with fixed bayonets, threw down their arms, and fled. A considerable part of the North Carolina militia followed their unworthy example. But the continental troops evinced the most unyielding firmness, and pressed forward with unusual ardour. Never did men acquit themselves more honourably. They submitted only when forsaken by their brethren in arms, and when overpowered by numbers.

In this battle, the brave Baron de Kalb, second in command, at the head of the Marylanders, fell, covered with wounds, which he survived only a few days. De Kalb was a German

by birth, and had formerly served in the armies of the French. In consideration of his distinguished merit, as an officer and soldier, congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory at Annapolis.

The battle of Camden was exceedingly bloody. The field of battle, the road and swamps, for some distance, were covered with wounded and slain. The number of Americans killed, although not certain, probably amounted to between six and seven hundred, and the wounded and prisoners to one thousand three hundred or one thousand four hundred. The British stated their loss to be only three hundred and twenty four, in killed and wounded; but it was probably much greater.

Section LIII. "The disaster of the army, under Gen. Gates, overspread, at first, the face of American affairs with a dismal gloom; but the day of prosperity to the United States began, as will appear in the sequel, from that moment to dawn.

"Their prospects brightened, while those of their enemies were obscured by disgrace, broken by defeat, and, at last, covered with ruin. Elated with their victories, the conquerors grew more insolent and rapacious, while the real friends of independence became resolute and determined."

Section LIV. While the campaign of 1780 was thus filled up with important events in the southern department, it passed away, in the northern States, in successive disappointments, and reiterated distresses.

In June, a body of five thousand of the enemy, under Gen. Kniphausen, entered New-Jersey, and, in addition to plundering the country, wantonly burnt several villages.

On the arrival of this body at Connecticut Farms, a small settlement containing about a dozen houses and a church, they burnt the whole. At this place there resided a presbyterian minister by the name of Caldwell, who had taken a conspicuous part in the cause of freedom, and who had, of course, incurred the deep displeasure of Gen. Kniphausen. Supposing, however, that the general's resentment would be confined to him,

and that his family would be safe on the approach of the enemy, he hastily withdrew, leaving his wife and children to their mercy. Col. Drayton had previously withdrawn the militia from the place, that there might be no pretext for enormities; but the British soldiers in the American war, did not wait for pretexts to be cruel. Mrs. Caldwell was shot in the midst of her children, by a villain, who walked up to the window of the room in which she was sitting, and took deliberate aim with his musket. This atrocious act was attempted to be excused as an *accident*, as a *random* shot; but the attempt at palliation served only to increase the crime.

Besides these predatory incursions, by which the inhabitants suffered alarm, distress, and destruction of property, they suffered greatly, also, from the constantly diminishing value of their paper currency, and from unfavourable crops.

The situation of Gen. Washington, often during the war embarrassing, had been distressing through the winter, in his encampment at Morristown. The cold was more intense than it had ever been known to be before in this climate, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The winter, to this day, bears the distinctive epithet of the *hard winter*. The army suffered extremely, and often had Washington the prospect before him of being obliged to break up his encampment, and disband his soldiers.

The return of spring brought little alleviation to heir distress. Great disorder pervaded the departments for supplying the army. Abuses crept in, frauds were practised, and notwithstanding the poverty of the country, economy, on the part of the commissaries, was exiled.

In May, a committee from congress visited the army, and reported to that body, an account of the distresses and disorders conspicuously prevalent. In particular, they stated, "that the army was unpaid for five months—that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was, on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat—that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left."

Section LV. But under all this tide of evils, there appeared no disposition, in public bodies, to purchase their relief by concession. They

seemed, on the contrary, to rise in the midst of their distresses, and to gain firmness and strength by the pressure of calamity.

Section LVI. Fortunately for the Americans, as it seemed, M. de Ternay arrived at Rhode-Island, July 10th, from France, with a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and five smaller armed vessels, with several transports, and six thousand men, all under command of Lieutenant General Count de Rochambeau. Great was the joy excited by this event, and high raised expectations were indulged from the assistance of so powerful a force against the enemy. But the British fleet, in our waters, was still superior, and that of the French, and the French army, were for a considerable time, incapacitated from co-operating with the Americans, by being blocked up at Rhode-Island.

The arrival of the French fleet, at Newport, was greeted by the citizens with every demonstration of joy. The town was illuminated, and congratulatory addresses were exchanged. As a symbol of friendship and affection for the allies, Gen. Washington recommended to the American officers, to wear black and white cockades, the ground to be of the first colour, and the relief of the second.

Section LVII. The fortress of West-Point, on the Hudson, sixty miles north of New-York, and its importance to the Americans, has already been noticed. Of this fortress, Gen. Arnold had solicited and obtained the command. Soon after assuming the command, Arnold entered into negotiations with Sir Henry Clinton, to make such a disposition of the forces in the fortress, as that the latter might easily take possession of it by surprise. Fortunately for America, this base plot was seasonably discovered to prevent the ruinous consequences that must have followed. Arnold, however, escaped to the enemy

loaded with infamy and disgrace. Andre, the agent of the British, in this negotiation, was taken, and justly expiated his crime on the gallows, as a spy.

Major Andre, at this time adjutant-general of the British army, was an officer extremely young—but high-minded, brave, and accomplished. He was transported in a vessel called the Vulture, up the North river, as near to West Point as was practicable, without exciting suspicion. On the 21st of September, at night, a boat was sent from the shore, to bring him. On its return, Arnold met him at the beach, without the posts of either army. Their business was not finished, till too near the dawn of day for Andre to return to the Vulture. He, therefore, lay concealed within the American lines. During the day, the Vulture found it necessary to change her position, and Andre, not being able now to get on board, was compelled to attempt his return to New-York by land.

Having changed his military dress for a plain coat, and received a passport from Arnold, under the assumed name of John Anderson, he passed the guards and outposts, without suspicion. On his arrival at Tarrytown, a village thirty miles north of New-York, in the vicinity of the first British posts, he was met by three militia soldiers—John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. He showed them his passport, and they suffered him to continue his route. Immediately after this, one of these three men, thinking that he perceived something singular in the person of the traveller, called him back. Andre asked them where they were from? "From down below," they replied, intending to say, from New-York. Too frank to suspect a snare, Andre immediately answered, "And so am I."

Upon this, they arrested him, when he declared himself to be a British officer, and offered them his watch, and all the gold he had with him, to be released. These soldiers were poor and obscure, but they were not to be bribed. Resolutely refusing his offers, they conducted him to Lieutenant Col. Jameson, their commanding officer.

Jameson injudiciously permitted Andre, still calling himself Anderson, to write to Arnold, who immediately escaped on board the Vulture, and took refuge in New-York.

Washington, on his way to head quarters, from Connecticut —where he had been to confer with Count de Rochambeau— providentially happened to be at West Point, just at this time. After taking measures to insure the safety of the fort, he appointed a board, of which Gen. Greene was president, to decide upon the condition and punishment of Andre.

After a patient hearing of the case, September 29th, in which every feeling of kindness, liberality, and generous sympathy was strongly evinced, the board, upon his own confession, unanimously pronounced Andre a *spy*, and declared, that agreeably to the laws and usages of nations, he ought to suffer death.

Major Andre had many friends in the American army, and even Washington would have spared him, had duty to his country permitted. Every possible effort was made by Sir Henry Clinton in his favour, but it was deemed important that the decision of the board of war should be carried into execution. When Major Andre was apprised of the sentence of death, he made a last appeal, in a letter to Washington, that he might be shot, rather than die on a gibbet.

"Buoyed above the terrour of death," said he, "by the consciousness of a life devoted to honourable pursuits, and stained with no action that can give me remorse, I trust that the request I make to your excellency at this serious period, and which is to soften my last moments, will not be rejected. Sympathy towards a soldier will surely induce your excellency, and a military friend, to adapt the mode of my death to the feelings of a man of honour. Let me hope, sir, that if aught in my character impresses you with esteem towards me, as the victim of policy and resentment, I shall experience the operation of those feelings in your breast by being informed that I am not to die on a gibbet."

This letter of Andre roused the sympathies of Washington, and had *he* only been concerned, the prisoner would have been pardoned and released. But the interests of his country were at stake, and the sternness of justice demanded that private feelings should be sacrificed. Upon consulting his officers, on the propriety of Major Andre's request, to receive the death of a soldier, —to be shot—it was deemed necessary to deny it, and to make him an example. On the 2d of October, this unfortunate young man expired on the gallows, while foes and friends universally lamented his untimely end.

As a reward to Paulding, Williams, and Van Wert, for their virtuous and patriotick conduct, Congress voted to each of them an annuity of two hundred dollars and a silver medal, on one side of which, was a shield with this inscription—"fidelity,"—and on the other, the following motto, "*vincit amor patriæ*" —the love of country conquers.

Arnold, the miserable wretch, whose machinations led to the melancholy fate Andre experienced, escaped to New-York, where, as the price of his dishonour, he received the commission of *brigadier general*, and the sum of *ten thousand pounds sterling*. This last boon was the grand secret of Arnold's fall from

virtue; his vanity and extravagance had led him into expenses which it was neither in the power nor will of congress to support. He had involved himself in debt, from which he saw no hope of extricating himself; and his honour, therefore, was bartered for British gold.

Section LVIII. Gen. Washington, having learned whither Arnold had fled, deemed it possible still to take him, and to bring him to the just reward of his treachery. To accomplish an object so desirable, and, at the same time, in so doing, to save Andre, Washington devised a plan, which, although it ultimately failed, evinced the capacity of his mind, and his unwearied ardour for his country's good.

Having matured the plan, Washington sent to Major Lee to repair to head quarters, at Tappan, on the Hudson. "I have sent for you," said Gen. Washington, "in the expectation that you have some one in your corps, who is willing to undertake a delicate and hazardous project. Whoever comes forward will confer great obligations upon me personally, and, in behalf of the United States, I will reward him amply. No time is to be lost; he must proceed, if possible, to-night. I intend to seize Arnold, and save Andre."

Major Lee named a sergeant-major of his corps, by the name of *Champe*—a native of Virginia, a man full of bone and muscle—with a countenance grave, thoughtful, and taciturn—of tried courage, and inflexible perseverance.

Champe was sent for by Major Lee, and the plan proposed. This was for him to desert—to escape to New-York—to appear friendly to the enemy—to watch Arnold, and, upon some fit opportunity, with the assistance of some one whom Champe could trust, to seize him, and conduct him to a place on the river, appointed, where boats should be in readiness to bear them away.

Champe listened to the plan attentively—but, with the spirit of a man of honour and integrity, replied—"that it was not danger nor difficulty, that deterred him from immediately accepting the proposal, but the *ignominy of desertion*, and the *hypocrisy of enlisting with the enemy!*"

To these objections, Lee replied, that although he would appear to desert, yet as he obeyed the call of his commander in chief, his departure could not be considered as criminal, and that, if he suffered in reputation, for a time, the matter would

one day be explained to his credit. As to the second objection, it was urged, that to bring such a man as Arnold to justice—loaded with guilt as he was—and to save Andre—so young—so accomplished—so beloved—to achieve so much good in the cause of his country—was more than sufficient to balance a wrong, existing only in appearance.

The objections of Champe were at length surmounted, and he accepted the service. It was now eleven o'clock at night. With his instructions in his pocket, the sergeant returned to camp, and, taking his cloak, valice, and orderly book, drew his horse from the picket and mounted, putting himself upon fortune.

Scarcely had half an hour elapsed, before Capt. Carnes, the officer of the day, waited upon Lee, who was vainly attempting to rest, and informed him, that one of the patrol had fallen in with a dragoon, who, being challenged, put spurs to his horse and escaped. Lee, hoping to conceal the flight of Champe, or at least to delay pursuit, complained of fatigue, and told the captain that the patrol had probably mistaken a countryman for a dragoon. Carnes, however, was not thus to be quieted; and he withdrew to assemble his corps. On examination, it was found that Champe was absent. The captain now returned, and acquainted Lee with the discovery, adding that he had detached a party to pursue the deserter, and begged the major's written orders.

After making as much delay as practicable, without exciting suspicion, Lee delivers his orders—in which he directed the party to take Champe if possible. "Bring him alive," said he, "that he may suffer in the presence of the army; but kill him if he resists, or if he escapes after being taken."

A shower of rain fell soon after Champe's departure, which enabled the pursuing dragoons to take the trail of his horse, his shoes, in common with those of the horses of the army, being made in a peculiar form, and each having a private mark, which was to be seen in the path.

Middleton, the leader of the pursuing party, left the camp a few minutes past twelve, so that Champe had the start of but little more than an hour—a period by far shorter than had been contemplated. During the night, the dragoons were often delayed in the necessary halts to examine the road; but, on the coming of morning, the impression of the horse's shoes was so apparent, that they pressed on with rapidity. Some miles above Bergen, a village three miles north of New-York, on the opposite side of the Hudson, on ascending a hill, Champe was descried, not more than half a mile distant. Fortunately, Champe

descried his pursuers at the same moment, and, conjecturing their object, put spurs to his horse, with the hope of escape.

By taking a different road, Champe was, for a time, lost sight of—but, on approaching the river, he was again descried. Aware of his danger, he now lashed his valice, containing his clothes and orderly book, to his shoulders, and prepared himself to plunge into the river, if necessary. Swift was his flight, and swift the pursuit. Middleton and his party were within a few hundred yards, when Champe threw himself from his horse and plunged into the river, calling aloud upon some British galleys, at no great distance, for help. A boat was instantly despatched to the sergeant's assistance, and a fire commenced upon the pursuers. Champe was taken on board, and soon after carried to New-York, with a letter from the captain of the galley, stating the past scene, all of which he had witnessed.

The pursuers having recovered the sergeant's horse and cloak, returned to camp, where they arrived about three o'clock the next day. On their appearance with the well known horse, the soldiers made the air resound with the acclamations that the scoundrel was killed. The agony of Lee, for a moment, was past description, lest the faithful, honourable, intrepid Champe had fallen. But the truth soon relieved his fears, and he repaired to Washington to impart to him the success, thus, far of his plan.

Soon after the arrival of Champe in New-York, he was sent to Sir Henry Clinton, who treated him kindly, but detained him more than an hour in asking him questions, to answer some of which, without exciting suspicion, required all the art the sergeant was master of. He succeeded, however, and Sir Henry gave him a couple of guineas, and recommended him to Arnold, who was wishing to procure American recruits. Arnold received him kindly, and proposed to him to join his legion; Champe, however, expressed his wish to retire from war; but assured the general, that if he should change his mind, he would enlist.

Champe found means to communicate to Lee an account of his adventures; but, unfortunately, he could not succeed in taking Arnold, as was wished, before the execution of Andre. Ten days before Champe brought his project to a conclusion, Lee received from him his final communication, appointing the third subsequent night for a party of dragoons to meet him at Hoboken, opposite New-York, when he hoped to deliver Arnold to the officers.

Champe had enlisted into Arnold's legion, from which time he had every opportunity, he could wish, to attend to the habits of the general. He discovered that it was his custom to return

home about twelve every night, and that, previously to going to bed, he always visited the garden. During this visit, the conspirators were to seize him, and, being prepared with a gag, they were to apply the same instantly.

Adjoining the house in which Arnold resided, and in which it was designed to seize and gag him, Champe had taken off several of the palings and replaced them, so that with ease, and without noise, he could readily open his way to the adjoining alley. Into this alley he intended to convey his prisoner, aided by his companion, one of two associates, who had been introduced by the friend, to whom Champe had been originally made known by letter from the commander in chief, and with whose aid and counsel, he had so far conducted the enterprise. His other associate was, with the boat, prepared at one of the wharves on the Hudson river, to receive the party.

Champe and his friend intended to place themselves each under Arnold's shoulder, and thus to bear him through the most unfrequented alleys and streets to the boat, representing Arnold, in case of being questioned, as a drunken soldier, whom they were conveying to the guard-house.

When arrived at the boat, the difficulties would be all surmounted, there being no danger nor obstacle in passing to the Jersey shore. These particulars, as soon as made known to Lee, were communicated to the commander in chief, who was highly gratified with the much desired intelligence. He desired Major Lee to meet Champe, and to take care that Arnold should not be hurt.

The day arrived, and Lee, with a party of accoutered horses, (one for Arnold, one for the sergeant, and the third for his associate, who was to assist in securing Arnold,) left the camp, never doubting the success of the enterprise, from the tenour of the last received communication. The party reached Hoboken about midnight, where they were concealed in the adjoining wood—Lee, with three dragoons, stationing himself near the shore of the river.—Hour after hour passed, but no boat approached.

At length the day broke, and the major retired to his party, and, with his led horses, returned to the camp, where he proceeded to head quarters to inform the general of the much lamented disappointment, as mortifying, as inexplicable. Washington, having perused Champe's plan and communication, had indulged the presumption, that, at length, the object of his keen and constant pursuit was sure of execution, and did not dissemble the joy which such a conviction produced. He was chagrined at the issue, and apprehended that his faithful ser-

geant must have been detected in the last scene of his tedious and difficult enterprise.

In a few days, Lee received an anonymous letter from Champe's patron and friend, informing him, that on the day preceding the night fixed for the execution of the plot, Arnold had removed his quarters to another part of the town, to superintend the embarkation of troops, preparing, as was rumoured, for an expedition to be directed by himself; and that the American legion, consisting chiefly of American deserters, had been transferred from their barracks to one of the transports, it being apprehended that if left on shore, until the expedition was ready, many of them might desert.

Thus it happened that John Champe, instead of crossing the Hudson that night, was safely deposited on board one of the fleet of transports, from whence he never departed, until the troops under Arnold landed in Virginia. Nor was he able to escape from the British army, until after the junction of Lord Cornwallis at Petersburg, when he deserted; and, proceeding high up into Virginia, he passed into North Carolina, near the Saura towns, and, keeping in the friendly districts of that State, safely joined the army soon after it had passed the Congaree, in pursuit of Lord Rawdon.

His appearance excited extreme surprise among his former comrades, which was not a little increased, when they saw the cordial reception he met with from the late major, now Lieutenant Col. Lee. His whole story was soon known to the corps, which re-produced the love and respect of officers and soldiers, heretofore invariably entertained for the sergeant, heightened by universal admiration of his late daring and arduous attempt.

Champe was introduced to Gen. Greene, who very cheerfully complied with the promise made by the commander in chief, so far as in his power; and, having provided the sergeant with a good horse and money for his journey, sent him to Gen. Washington, who munificently anticipated every desire of the sergeant, and presented him with a discharge from further service, lest he might, in the vicissitudes of war, fall into the hands of the enemy, when, if recognized, he was sure to die on a gibbet.

We shall only add, respecting the after life of this interesting adventurer, that when Gen. Washington was called by President Adams, in 1798, to the command of the army, prepared to defend the country, against French hostility, he sent to Lieutenant Col. Lee, to inquire for Champe; being determined to bring him into the field at the head of a company of infantry. Lee sent to Loudon county, Virginia, where Champe settled after his

discharge from the army; when he learned that the gallant soldier had removed to Kentucky, where he soon after died.*

Section LIX. The year 1781 opened with an event extremely afflicting to Gen. Washington, and which, for a time, seriously endangered the American army. This was the revolt of the whole Pennsylvania line of troops, at Morristown, to the number of one thousand three hundred. The cause of this mutiny was want of pay, clothing, and provisions. Upon examination of the grievances of the troops, by a committee from congress, their complaints were considered to be founded in justice. Upon their being redressed, the troops, whose time of service had expired, returned home, and the rest cheerfully repaired again to camp.

Gen. Wayne, who commanded these troops, and who was greatly respected by them, used every exertion to quiet them, but in vain. In the ardour of remonstrance with them, he cocked his pistol, and turned it towards them. Instantly, an hundred bayonets were directed towards him, and the men cried out, "we love you, we respect you; but you are a dead man, if you fire. Do not mistake us; we are not going to the enemy. On the contrary, were they now to come out, you should see us fight under your orders, with as much resolution and alacrity as ever."

Leaving the camp, the mutineers proceeded in a body to Princeton. Thither, Sir Henry Clinton, who had heard of the revolt, sent agents to induce them to come over to the British, with the promise of large rewards.

But these soldiers loved their country's cause too well to listen to proposals so reproachful. They were suffering privations which could no longer be sustained; but they spurned, with disdain, the offer of the enemy. They also seized the agents of the British, and nobly delivered them up to Gen. Wayne to be treated as spies.

Section LX. In the midst of these troubles, arising from discontents of the troops, news ar-

* Lee's Memoirs.

rived of great depredations in Virginia, by Arnold, who had left New-York for the south, with one thousand six hundred men, and a number of armed vessels. Extensive outrages were committed by these troops in that part of the country. Large quantities of tobacco, salt, rum, &c. were destroyed. In this manner did Arnold show the change of spirit, which had taken place in his breast, and his fidelity to his new engagements.

Upon receiving news of these depredations, at the request of Gen. Washington, a French squadron, from Rhode-Island, was sent to cut off Arnold's retreat. Ten of his vessels were destroyed, and a forty-four gun ship was captured. Shortly after this, an engagement took place off the Capes of Virginia, between the French and English squadrons, which terminated so far to the advantage of the English, that Arnold was saved from imminent danger of falling into the hands of his exasperated countrymen.

Section LXI. After the unfortunate battle at Camden, August 16th, 1780, congress thought proper to remove Gen. Gates, and to appoint Gen. Greene in his place. In December, 1780, Greene assumed the command. The army at this time was reduced to two thousand men, more than half of whom were militia, and all were miserably fed and clothed.

With this force, Gen. Greene took the field, against a superiour regular force, flushed with successive victories through a whole campaign. Soon after taking the command, he divided his force, and, with one part, sent Gen. Morgan to the western extremity of South Carolina.

At this time, Lord Cornwallis was nearly prepared to invade North Carolina. Unwilling to

leave such an enemy as Morgan in his rear, he despatched Col. Tarleton to engage Gen. Morgan, and "to push him to the utmost."

Section LXII. January 17th, 1781, these two detachments met, when was fought the spirited battle of the Cowpens, in which the American arms signally triumphed.

In this memorable battle, the British lost upwards of one hundred killed, among whom were ten commissioned officers, and two hundred wounded. More than five hundred prisoners fell into the hands of the Americans, besides two pieces of artillery, twelve standards, eight hundred muskets, thirty-five baggage waggons, one hundred dragoon horses; the loss of the Americans was no more than twelve killed and sixty wounded.

The victory of the Cowpens must be reckoned as one of the most brilliant achieved during the revolutionary war. The force of Morgan hardly amounted to five hundred, while that of his adversary exceeded one thousand. Morgan's brigade were principally militia, while Tarleton commanded the flower of the British army.

Section LXIII. Upon receiving the intelligence of Tarleton's defeat, Cornwallis abandoned the invasion of North Carolina for the present, and marched in pursuit of Gen. Morgan.

Greene, suspecting his intentions, hastened with his army to join Morgan. This junction was at length effected, at Guilford Court-House, after a fatiguing march, in which Cornwallis nearly overtook him, and was prevented only by the obstruction of a river.

After his junction with Morgan, Gen. Greene, with his troops and baggage, crossed the river Dan, and entered Virginia, again narrowly escaping the British, who were in close pursuit.

Section LXIV. Satisfied with having driven Greene from North Carolina, Cornwallis retired to Hillsborough, where, erecting the royal standard, he issued his proclamation, inviting the loyalists to join him. Many accepted his in-

vitation. At the same time, he despatched Tarleton, with four hundred and fifty men, to secure the countenance of a body of loyalists, collected between the Hawe and Deep rivers.

Section LXV. Apprehensive of Tarleton's success, Gen. Greene, on the 18th of February, re-crossed the Dan into Carolina, and despatched Generals Pickens and Lee to watch the movements of the enemy. These officers were unable to bring Tarleton to an engagement. Gen. Greene, having now received a reinforcement, making his army four thousand five hundred strong, concentrated his forces, and directed his march towards Guilford Court-House, whither Lord Cornwallis had retired.

Here, on the 8th of March, a general engagement took place, in which victory, after alternately passing to the banners of each army, finally decided in favour of the British.

The British loss, in this battle, exceeded five hundred in killed and wounded, among whom were several of the most distinguished officers. The American loss was about four hundred, in killed and wounded, of which more than three fourths fell upon the continentals. Though the numerical force of General Greene nearly doubled that of Cornwallis, yet, when we consider the difference between these forces, the shameful conduct of the North Carolina militia, who fled at the first fire, the desertion of the second Maryland regiment, and that a body of reserve was not brought into action, it will appear, that our numbers, actually engaged, but little exceeded that of the enemy.

Section LXVI. Notwithstanding the issue of the above battle, Gen. Greene took the bold resolution of leading back his forces to South Carolina, and of attacking the enemies' strong post at Camden, in that State. Accordingly, on the 9th of April, he put his troops in motion, and on the 20th, encamped at Logtown, within sight of

the enemies' works. Lord Rawdon, at this time, held the command of Camden, and had a force of only nine hundred men. The army of Gen. Greene—a detachment having been made for another expedition under Gen. Lee—amounted scarcely to twelve hundred men of all classes.

On the 25th, Lord Rawdon drew out his forces, and the two armies engaged. For a season, victory seemed inclined to the Americans, but, in the issue, Gen. Greene found himself obliged to retreat.

The American loss in killed, wounded, and missing, was two hundred and sixty-eight; the English loss was nearly equal. The failure of the victory, in this battle, was not attributable, as in some cases, to the flight of the militia, when danger had scarcely begun—but Gen. Greene experienced the mortification of seeing a regiment of veterans give way to an inferiour force, when every circumstance was in their favour—the very regiment too, which, at the battle of the Cowpens, behaved with such heroick bravery.

Section LXVII. Although the British arms gained the victory of Camden, the result of the whole was favourable to the American cause. Gen. Lee, with a detachment despatched for that purpose, while Greene was marching against Camden, took possession of an important post at Mottes, near the confluence of the Congaree and Santee rivers. This auspicious event was followed by the evacuation of Camden, by Lord Rawdon, and of the whole line of British posts, with the exception of Ninety-Six and Charleston.

Section LXVIII. Ninety-Six, one hundred and forty-seven miles north-west from Charleston, was garrisoned by five hundred and sixty men. Against this post, after the battle of Camden, Gen. Greene took up his march, and, on the 22d of May, sat down before it. Soon after

the siege of it had been commenced, intelligence arrived that Lord Rawdon had been reinforced by troops from Ireland, and was on his march with two thousand men for its relief. Greene now determined upon an assault, but in this he failed, with a loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Soon after his arrival at Ninety Six, Lord Rawdon deemed it expedient to evacuate this post. Retiring himself to Charleston, his army encamped at the Eutaw Springs, forty miles from Charleston.

Section LXIX. Gen. Greene, having retired to the high hills of Santee, to spend the hot and sickly season, in September approached the enemy at the Eutaw Springs. On the morning of the 8th, he advanced upon him, and the battle between the two armies became general. The contest was sustained with equal bravery on both sides—victory seeming to decide in favour of neither.

The British lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about one thousand one hundred. The loss of the Americans was five hundred and fifty-five.

Section LXX. The battle at the Eutaw Springs was the last general action that took place in South Carolina, and nearly finished the war in that quarter. The enemy now retired to Charleston.

Thus closed the campaign of 1781, in South Carolina. Few commanders have ever had greater difficulties to encounter than General Greene; and few have ever, with the same means, accomplished so much. Though never so decisively victorious, yet the battles which he fought, either from necessity or choice, were always so well managed as to result to his advantage.

Not unmindful of his eminent services, Congress presented him with a British standard, and a gold medal, emblematical of the action at the Eutaw Springs, which restored a sister State to the American Union.

Section LXXI. After the battle of Guilford,

between Greene and Cornwallis, noticed above, the latter, leaving South Carolina in charge of Lord Rawdon, commenced his march towards Petersburg, in Virginia, where he arrived on the 20th of May. Having received several reinforcements, he found himself with an army of eight thousand, and indulged the pleasing anticipations that Virginia would soon be made to yield to his arms.

Early in the spring, Gen. Washington had detached the Marquis de la Fayette, with three thousand men, to co-operate with the French fleet, in Virginia, in the capture of Arnold, who was committing depredations in that State, On the failure of this expedition, La Fayette marched back as far as the head of Elk river.—Here he received orders to return to Virginia to oppose the British. On his return, hearing of the advance of Cornwallis, towards Petersburg, twenty miles below Richmond, he hastened his march to prevent, if possible, the junction of Cornwallis, with a reinforcement, under Gen. Phillips. In this, however, he failed.

The junction being effected at Petersburg, Cornwallis moved towards James' river, which he crossed, with the intention of forcing the marquis to a battle.

Prudence forbad the marquis risking an engagement, with an enemy of more than twice his force. He thetefore retreated, and, notwithstanding the uncommon efforts of his lordship to prevent it, he effected a junction with Gen. Wayne, who had been despatched by Washington, with eight hundred Pennsylvania militia, to his assistance. After this reinforcement, the disproportion between himself and

his adversary was still too great to permit him to think of battle. He continued his retreat, therefore, displaying, in all his manœuvres, the highest prudence.

Section LXXII. While these things were transpiring in Virginia, matters of high moment seemed to be in agitation in the north, which, not long after, were fully developed.

Early in May, 1781, a plan of the whole campaign had been arranged by Gen. Washington, in consultation, at Wethersfield, Connecticut, with Generals Knox and Du Portail, on the part of the Americans, and Count de Rochambeau, on the part of France. The grand project of the season was to lay siege to New-York, in concert with a French fleet, expected on the coast in August.

In the prosecution of this plan, the French troops were marched from Rhode-Island, and joined Gen. Washington, who had concentrated his forces at Kingsbridge, fifteen miles above New-York. All things were preparing for a vigorous siege, and, towards this strongest hold of the enemy, the eyes of all were intently directed.

In this posture of things, letters addressed to Gen. Washington, informed him that the expected French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, would soon arrive in the Chesapeake, and that this, instead of New-York, was the place of its destination.

Disappointed in not having the co-operation of such a force; disappointed also in not receiving the full quota of militia, which had been ordered from New-England and New-Jersey; and, moreover, learning that Clinton had been

reinforced in New-York, by the arrival of three thousand Germans; Washington was induced to change the plan of operations, and to direct his attention to Cornwallis, who, from pursuing the Marquis de la Fayette, had retired to York-town, near the mouth of York river, and had fortified that place.

Section LXXIII. Having decided upon this measure, on the 19th of July he drew off his forces, and commenced his march, at the same time strongly impressing Clinton, by every art in his power, that an attack would soon be made upon New-York. So successfully was this deception practised, that Washington was some distance on his way towards Virginia, before Clinton suspected that his object was any other than to draw him from New-York, to fight him in the field, with superiour forces.

Having halted at Philadelphia a few days, the army continued its march to the head of Elk river, whence it embarked for Williamsburg, then the head quarters of the Marquis de la Fayette, where it arrived September 25th.

Gen. Washington and Count de Rochambeau preceded the troops ten days, and, to their great joy, found that the Count de Grasse had entered the Capes on the 30th of the preceding month, with twenty-eight sail, and three thousand troops.

On the arrival of these two generals at Williamsburg, a vessel was in readiness to convey them on board the Ville de Paris, the flag-ship of the Count de Grasse, where a council was held to determine on future operations.

Section LXXIV. These being settled, the combined armies, amounting to twelve thousand

men, moved upon Yorktown and Gloucester, September 30th, and the Count de Grasse, with his fleet, proceeded up to the mouth of York river, to prevent Cornwallis either from retreating, or receiving assistance.

Yorktown is a small village on the south side of York river, whose southern banks are high, and in whose waters a ship of the line may ride in safety. Gloucester Point is a piece of land on the opposite shore, projecting far into the river. Both these posts were occupied by Cornwallis—the main body of the army being at York, under the immediate command of his lordship, and a detachment of six hundred at Gloucester point, under Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

On the 6th of October, Washington's heavy ordnance, &c. arrived, and the siege was commenced in form. Seldom, if ever, during the revolutionary struggle, did the American commander in chief, or his troops, appear before the enemy with more cool determination, or pursue him with more persevering ardour, than at the siege of Yorktown. With the fall of Cornwallis, it was perceived that the hopes of Great Britain, successfully to maintain the contest, must nearly expire; with this in prospect, there was no wavering of purpose, and no intermission of toil.

On the 19th of October, the memorable victory over Cornwallis was achieved, and his whole army was surrendered, amounting to more than seven thousand prisoners of war, together with a park of artillery of one hundred and sixty pieces, the greater part of which were brass.

Articles of capitulation being mutually signed and ratified, Gen. Lincoln was appointed, by the commander in chief, to receive the submission of the royal army, in the same manner, in which, eighteen months before, Cornwallis had received that of the Americans at Charleston.

The spectacle is represented as having been impressive and affecting. The road through which the captive army marched

was lined with spectators, French and American. On one side, the commander in chief, surrounded with his suite, and the American staff, took his station; on the other side, opposite to him, was the Count de Rochambeau, in the like manner attended.

The captive army approached, moving slowly in column, with grace and precision. Universal silence was observed amidst the vast concourse, and the utmost decency prevailed; exhibiting an awful sense of the vicissitudes of human life, mingled with commisseration for the unhappy

Every eye was now turned, searching for the British commander in chief, anxious to look at the man, heretofore so much the object of their dread. All were disappointed. Cornwallis, unable to bear up against the humiliation of marching at the head of his garrison, constituted Gen. O'Hara his representative, on the occasion.

The post of Gloucester, falling with that of York, was delivered up the same day, by Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

At the termination of the siege, the besieging army amounted to sixteen thousand. The British force was put down at seven thousand one hundred and seven, of which only four thousand and seven rank and file are stated to have been fit for duty.

Section LXXV. Five days after the surrender of Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton made his appearance off the Capes of Virginia with a reinforcement of seven thousand men; but, receiving intelligence of his lordship's fate, he returned to New-York.

Cornwallis, in his despatches to Sir Henry, more than hinted that his fall had been produced by a too firm reliance on promises, that no pains were taken to fulfil. Clinton had promised Cornwallis that this auxiliary force should leave New-York on the 5th of October, but for reasons never explained, it did not sail until the 19th, the very day that decided the fate of the army.

Section LXXVI. Nothing could exceed the joy of the American people, at this great and important victory, over Lord Cornwallis. Exultation broke forth from one extremity of the country to the other. The remembrance of the past gave place in all minds to the most brilliant hopes. It was confidently anticipated, that the affair of Yorktown would rapidly hasten the ac-

knowledgment of American Independence—an event, for which the people had been toiling and bleeding through so many campaigns.

In all parts of the United States, solemn festivals and rejoicings celebrated the triumph of American fortune. The names of Washington, Rochambeau, De Grasse, and La Fayette, resounded every where. To the unanimous acclaim of the people, congress joined the authority of its resolves. It addressed thanks to the generals, officers, and soldiers—presented British colours—ordered the erection of a marble column—and went in procession to church, to render publick thanksgiving to God for the recent victory. The 30th of December was appointed as a day of national thanksgiving.

Section LXXVII. While the combined armies were advancing to the siege of Yorktown, an excursion was made from New-York, by Gen. Arnold, against New-London, in his *native state*. The object of this expedition seems to have been, to draw away a part of the American forces; Sir Henry Clinton knowing but too well, that if they were left at liberty to push the siege of Yorktown, the blockaded army must inevitably surrender.

This expedition was signalized by the greatest atrocities. Fort Trumbull, on the west, and Fort Griswold, on the east side of the river Thames, below New-London, were taken, and the greater part of that town was burnt.

At Fort Trumbull, little or no resistance was made; but Fort Griswold was defended for a time, with great bravery and resolution. After the fort was carried, a British officer entering, inquired who commanded. Col. Ledyard answered, "I did, but you do now"—at the same time presenting his sword. The officer immediately plunged the sword into his bosom. A general massacre now took place, as well of those who surrendered as of those who resisted, which continued until nearly all the garrison were either killed or wounded. Sixty dwelling houses, and eighty-four stores in New-London, were reduced to ashes.

Section LXXVIII. The fall of Cornwallis may be considered as substantially closing the

war. A few posts of importance were still held by the British—New-York, Charleston, and Savannah—but all other parts of the country, which they had possessed, were recovered into the power of congress. A few skirmishes alone indicated the continuance of war.

A part of the French army, soon after the capture of Cornwallis, re-embarked, and Count de Grasse sailed for the West Indies. Count Rochambeau cantoned his army for the winter, 1782, in Virginia, and the main body of the Americans returned, by the way of the Chesapeake, to their former position on the Hudson.

Section LXXIX. From the 12th of December, 1781, to the 4th of March, 1782, motion after motion was made in the British Parliament for putting an end to the war in America. On this latter day, the commons resolved "that the house would consider as enemies to his majesty and to the country, all those who should advise, or attempt the further prosecution of offensive war, on the continent of North America."

Section LXXX. On the same day, the command of his majesty's forces in America was taken from Sir Henry Clinton, and given to Sir Guy Carleton, who was instructed to promote the wishes of Great Britain, for an accommodation with the United States.

In accordance with these instructions, Sir Guy Carleton endeavoured to open a correspondence with congress, and with this view sent to Gen. Washington to solicit a passport for his secretary. But this was refused, since congress would enter into no negociations but in concert with his most Christian Majesty.

Section LXXXI. The French court, on re-

ceiving intelligence of the surrender of Cornwallis, pressed upon congress the appointment of commissioners for negotiating peace with Great Britain. Accordingly, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, were appointed. These commissioners met Mr. Fitzherbet and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain, at Paris, and provisional articles of peace between the two countries were signed, November 30th, 1782. The definitive treaty was signed on the 30th of September, 1783.

Although the definitive treaty was not signed until September, there had been no act of hostility between the two armies, and a state of peace had actually existed from the commencement of the year 1783. A formal proclamation of the cessation of hostilities was made through the army on the 19th of April,—Savannah was evacuated in July, New-York, in November, and Charleston, in the following month.

Section LXXXII. The third of November was fixed upon by congress, for disbanding the army of the United States. On the day previous, Washington issued his farewell orders, and bid an affectionate adieu to the soldiers, who had fought and bled by his side.

After mentioning the trying times through which he had passed, and the unexampled patience which, under every circumstance of suffering, his army had evinced, he passed to the glorious prospects opening before them, and their country—and then bade them adieu in the following words: "Being now to conclude these his last publick orders, to take his ultimate leave in a short time of the military character, and to bid a final adieu to the armies he has so long had the honour to comma- he can only again offer in their behalf, his recommendations to their grateful country, and his prayer to the God of armies.

"May ample justice be done them here, and may the choicest favour, both here and hereafter, attend those, who, under the divine auspices, have secured innumerable blessings

for others! With these wishes, and this benediction, the commander in chief is about to retire from service. The curtain of separation will soon be drawn, and the military scene to him will be closed for ever."

Section LXXXIII. Soon after taking leave of the army, Gen. Washington was called to the still more painful hour of separation from his officers, greatly endeared to him by a long series of common sufferings and dangers.

The officers having previously assembled in New-York for the purpose, Gen. Washington now joined them, and calling for a glass of wine, thus addressed them: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take my leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy, as your former ones have been glorious and honourable."

Having thus affectionately addressed them, he now took each by the hand and bade him farewell. Followed by them to the side of the Hudson, he entered a barge, and, while tears rolled down his cheeks, he turned towards the companions of his glory, and bade them a silent adieu.

Section LXXXIV. December 23, Washington appeared in the hall of congress, and resigned to them the commission which they had given him, as commander in chief of the armies of the United States.

After having spoken of the accomplishment of his wishes and exertions, in the independence of his country, and commended his officers and soldiers to Congress, he concluded as follows:

"I consider it an indispensable duty to close the last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping.

"Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action; and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of publick life."

Section LXXXV. Upon accepting his commission, congress, through their president, expressed in glowing language to Washington,

their high sense of his wisdom and energy, in conducting the war to so happy a termination, and invoked the choicest blessings upon his future life.

President Mifflin concluded as follows: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching HIM to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for YOU, we address to HIM our earnest prayers, that a life so beloved, may be fostered with all HIS care: that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious; and that HE will finally give you that reward which this world cannot give."

A profound silence now pervaded the assembly. The grandeur of the scene, the recollection of the past, the felicity of the present, and the hopes of the future, crowded fast upon all, while they united in invoking blessings upon the man, who, under God, had achieved so much, and who now, in the character of a mere *citizen*, was hastening to a long desired repose at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia.

Notes.

Section LXXXVI. **Manners.** At the commencement of the revolution, the colonists of America were a mass of husbandmen, merchants, mechanicks, and fishermen, who were occupied in the ordinary avocations of their respective callings, and were entitled to the appellation of a sober, honest, and industrious set of people. Being, however, under the control of a country, whose jealousies were early and strongly enlisted against them, and which, therefore, was eager to repress every attempt, on their part, to rise, they had comparatively

little scope or encouragement; for exertion and enterprise.

But, when the struggle for independence began, the case was altered. New fields for exertion were opened, and new and still stronger impulses actuated their bosoms. A great change was suddenly wrought in the American people, and a vast expansion of character took place. Those who were before only known in the humble sphere of peaceful occupation, soon shone forth in the cabinet or in the field, fully qualified to cope with the trained generals and statesmen of Europe.

But, although the revolution caused such an expansion of character in the American people, and called forth the most striking patriotism among all classes, it introduced, at the same time, greater looseness of manners and morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society around it. Besides this, the failure of publick credit so far put it out of the power of individuals to perform private engagements, that the breach of them became common, and, at length, was scarcely disgraceful. That high sense of integrity, which had extensively existed before, was thus exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honesty and honour.

On the whole, says Dr. Ramsay, who wrote soon after the close of this period, "the literary, political, and military talents of the United States, have been improved by the revolution, but their *moral character* is inferiour to what it formerly was. So great is the change for the worse," continues he, "that the friends of publick order are loudly called upon to exert their utmost abilities, in extirpating the vicious principles and habits which have taken deep root during the late convulsions."

Section LXXXVII. **Religion.*** During the revolution, the colonies being all united in one cause—a congress being assembled from all parts of America—and more frequent intercourse between different parts of the country being promoted by the shifting of the armies—local prejudices and sectarian asperities were obliterated; religious controversy was suspended; and bigotry softened. That spirit of intolerance, which had marked some portions of the country, was nearly done away.

But, for these advantages, the revolution brought with it great disadvantages to religion in general. The atheistical philosophy, which had been spread over France, and which would involve the whole subject of religion in the gloomy mists of skepticism—which acknowledges no distinction between right and wrong, and considers a future existence as a dream, that may or may not be realized—was thickly sown in the American army, by the French; and, uniting with the infidelity, which before had taken root in the country, produced a serious declension in the tone of religious feelings, among the American people.

In addition to this, religious institutions during the war, were much neglected; churches were demolished, or converted into barracks; publick worship was often suspended; and the clergy suffered severely, from the reduction of their salaries, caused by the depreciation of the circulating medium.

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* Dr. Ramsay, in classing those persons, in America, who were in favour, and those who were opposed, to the revolution, notices among the former, the *Irish emigrants* generally; the more enlightened *Germans;* the *Presbyterians*, and *Independents;* the *opulent slave-holders*, in the southern States; and generally, the *young*, the *ardent*, the *ambitious*, and the *enterprising*, throughout the country. Among those who were opposed to the revolution, were the *Scotch emigrants*, *Quakers*, *Episcopalians*, many *old men*, and most of the *rich*, in the eastern and middle States.

Section LXXXVIII. **Trade and Commerce.** During the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States was interrupted, not only with Great Britain, but, in a great measure, with the rest of the world. The greater part of the shipping, belonging to the country, was destroyed by the enemy, or perished by a natural process of decay.

Our coasts were so lined with British cruisers, as to render navigation too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. Some privateers, however, were fitted out, which succeeded in capturing several valuable prizes, on board of which were arms, and other munitions of war. During the last three years of the war, an illicit trade to Spanish America was carried on, but it was extremely limited.

Section LXXXIX. **Agriculture.** Agriculture was greatly interrupted during this period, by the withdrawing of labourers to the camp—by the want of encouragement, furnished by exportation, and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society.

The army often suffered for the means of subsistence, and the officers were sometimes forced to compel the inhabitants to furnish the soldiers food, in sufficient quantities to prevent their suffering.

Section XC. **Arts and Manufactures.** The trade with England, during this period, being interrupted by the war, the people of the United States were compelled to manufacture for themselves. Encouragement was given to all necessary manufactures, and the zeal, ingenuity, and industry of the people, furnished the country with articles of prime necessity, and, in a measure, supplied the place of a foreign market. Such was the progress in arts and manufactures, during the period, that, after the return of peace, when an uninterrupted intercourse with England was again opened, some articles, which before

were imported altogether, were found so well, and so abundantly manufactured at home, that their importation was stopped.

Section XCI. **Population.** The increase of the people of the United States, during this period, was small. Few, if any, emigrants arrived in the country. Many of the inhabitants were slain in battle, and thousands of that class called *tories*, left the land, who never returned. Perhaps we may fairly estimate the inhabitants of the country, about the close of this period, 1784, at three millions two hundred and fifty thousand.

Section XCII. **Education.** The interests of education suffered in common with other kindred interests, during the war. In several colleges, the course of instruction was, for a season, suspended; the hall was exchanged by the students for the camp, and the gown for the sword and epaulette.

Towards the conclusion of the war, two colleges were founded—one in Maryland, in 1782, by the name of Washington college; the other, in 1783, in Pennsylvania, which received the name of Dickinson college. The writer, whom we have quoted above, estimates the whole number of colleges and academies in the United States, at the close of this period, at thirty-six.

Reflections.

XCIII. The American Revolution is doubtless the most interesting event in the pages of modern history. Changes equally great, and convulsions equally violent, have often taken place; and the history of man tells us of many instances, in which oppression, urged beyond endurance, has called forth the spirit of successful and triumphant resistance. But, in the event before us, we see feeble colonies, without an army—without a navy—without an established government—without a revenue—without munitions of war—without fortifications, boldly stepping forth to meet the veteran armies of a proud,

powerful, and vindictive enemy. We see these colonies amidst want, poverty, and misfortune—supported by the pervading spirit of liberty, and guided by the good hand of Heaven—for nearly eight years sustaining the weight of a cruel conflict, upon their own soil. We see them at length victorious; their enemies sullenly retire from their shores, and these humble colonies stand forth enrolled on the page of history—a free, sovereign, and independent nation. Nor is this all. We see a wise government springing up from the blood that was spilt, and, down to our own time, shedding the choicest political blessings upon several millions of people!

What nation can dwell with more just satisfaction upon its annals, than ours? Almost all others trace their foundation to some ambitious and bloody conquerer, who sought only, by enslaving others, to aggrandize himself. Our independence was *won by the people*, who fought for the natural rights of man. Other nations have left their annals stained with the crimes of their people and princes; ours shines with the glowing traces of patriotism, constancy, and courage, amidst every rank of life, and every grade of office.

Whenever we advert to this portion of our history, and review it, as we well may with patriotick interest, let us not forget the gratitude we owe, as well to those who "fought, and bled, and died" for us, as that benignant Providence, who stayed the proud waves of British tyranny.

Let us also gather political wisdom from the American revolution. It has taught the world, emphatically, that oppression tends to weaken and destroy the power of the oppressor; that a people united in the cause of liberty are invincible by those who would enslave them; and that Heaven will ever frown upon the cause of injustice, and ultimately grant success to those who oppose it.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES.

CONVENTION AT PHILADELPHIA.

1787.

HARTFORD.

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823.

UNITED STATES.

Period VI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION,

Extending from the disbanding of the army, 1783, *to the inauguration of George Washington, as president of the United States, under the Federal Constitution*, 1789.

Section I. During the revolutionary war, the American people looked forward to a state of peace, independence, and self-government, as almost necessarily ensuring every possible blessing. A short time was sufficient, however, to demonstrate that something not yet possessed was necessary to realize the private and publick prosperity that had been anticipated. After a short struggle so to administer the existing system of government, as to make it competent to the great objects for which it was instituted, it became apparent that some other system must be substituted, or a general wreck of all that had been gained would ensue.

Section II. At the close of the war, the debts* of the Union were computed to amount to somewhat more than forty millions of dollars. By

* These debts were of two kinds, foreign and domestick. The foreign debt amounted to near eight millions of dollars, and was due to individuals in France—to the crown of France—to lenders in Holland and Spain. The domestick debt amounted to some more than thirty-four millions of dollars, and was due to persons who held loan office certificates—to the officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, &c.

the articles of confederation and union between the States, congress had the power to declare war, and borrow money, or issue bills of credit to carry it on; but it had not the ability to discharge debts, incurred by the war. All that congress could do, was to recommend to the individual States to raise money for that purpose.

Soon after the war, the attention of congress was drawn to this subject; the payment of the national debt being a matter of justice to creditors, as well as of vital importance to the preservation of the Union. It was proposed, therefore, by congress, to the States, that they should grant to that body the power of laying a duty of five per cent. on all foreign goods, which should be imported, and that the revenue arising thence should be applied to the diminution of the publick debt, until it was extinguished.

To this proposal, most of the States assented, and passed an act, granting the power. But Rhode-Island, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of her trade, declined passing an act for that purpose. Subsequently, New-York joined in the opposition, and rendered all prospect of raising a revenue, in this way, hopeless.

The consequence was, that even the interest of the publick debt remained unpaid. Certificates of public debt lost their credit, and many of the officers and soldiers of the late army, who were poor, were compelled to sell these certificates at excessive reductions.

Section III. While the friends of the national government were making unavailing ef-

forts to fix upon a permanent revenue, which might enable it to preserve the national faith, other causes, besides the loss of confidence in the confederation, concurred to hasten a radical change in the political system of the United States.

Among these causes, the principal was the evil resulting from the restrictions of Great Britain, laid on the trade of the United States with the West Indies; the ports of those islands being shut against the vessels of the United States, and enormous duties imposed on our most valuable exports.

Had congress possessed the power, a remedy might have been found, in passing similar acts against Great Britain; but this power had not been delegated by the States to the congress. That thirteen independent sovereignties, always jealous of one another, would separately concur in any proper measures to compel Great Britain to relax, was not to be expected. The importance of an enlargement of the powers of congress was thus rendered still more obvious.

Section IV. During this enfeebled and disorganized state of the general government, attempts were made, in some of the states, to maintain their credit, and to satisfy their creditors. The attempt of Massachusetts to affect this, by means of a heavy tax, produced an open insurrection among the people. In some parts of the State, the people convened in tumultuous assemblies—obstructed the sitting of courts, and, finally, took arms in opposition to the laws of the State. The prudent measures of Gov. Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force, under Gen. Linco'n, in the winter of 1786, gra-

dually subdued the spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

This rising of the people of Massachusetts is usually styled *Shays' insurrection*, from one Daniel Shays, a captain in the revolutionary army, who headed the insurgents. In August, 1786, fifteen hundred insurgents assembled at Northampton, took possession of the court-house, and prevented the session of the court. Similar outrages occurred at Worcester, Concord, Taunton, and Springfield. In New-Hampshire, also a body of men arose in September, and surrounding the general assembly, sitting at Exeter, held them prisoners for several hours.

In this state of civil commotion, a body of troops, to the number of four thousand, was ordered out by Massachusetts, to support the judicial courts, and suppress the insurrection. This force was put under the command of General Lincoln. Another body of troops was collected by Gen. Shepherd, near Springfield. After some skirmishing, the insurgents were dispersed; several were taken prisoners and condemned, but were ultimately pardoned.

Section V. The period seemed to have arrived, when it was to be decided whether the general government was to be supported or abandoned—whether the glorious objects of the revolutionary struggle should be realized or lost.

In January, 1786, the legislature of Virginia adopted a resolution to appoint commissioners, who were to meet such others, as might be appointed by the other States, to take into consideration the subject of trade, and to provide for a uniform system of commercial relations, &c. This resolution, ultimately, led to a proposition for a general convention to consider the state of the union.

But five States were represented in the convention, proposed by Virginia, which met at Annapolis. In consideration of the small number of States represented, the convention, without coming to any specific resolution on the paticular subjects referred to them, adjourned to meet

in Philadelphia, the succeeding May. Previously to adjournment, it recommended to the several States, to appoint delegates for that meeting, and to give them *power to revise the federal system.*

Agreeably to the above recommendation, all the States of the Union, excepting Rhode-Island, appointed commissioners, who, on the 19th of May, assembled at Philadelphia.

Of this body, Gen. Washington, one of the commissioners from Virginia, was unanimously elected president. The convention proceeded, with closed doors, to discuss the interesting subject submitted to their consideration.

Section VI. On the great principles which should form the basis of the constitution, not much difference of opinion prevailed. But, in reducing those principles to practical details, less harmony was to be expected. Such, indeed, was the difference of opinion, that, more than once, there was reason to fear, that the convention would rise, without effecting the object for which it was formed. Happily, however, it was at length agreed to sacrifice local interest on the altar of publick good, and on the 17th of September, 1787, the FEDERAL CONSTITUTION was presented to congress, who, shortly after, sent it to the several States for their consideration.

An abstract of this constitution, with its several subsequent amendments, follows: it is extracted from Mr. Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge.

Of the Legislature. "The legislative power of the United States is vested in a congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate, and a house of representatives. The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branches of the legislature, in each State. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the

age of twenty-five years, been a citizen of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the State in which he is chosen.

Of the Senate. "The senate consists of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year. If a vacancy happens, during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained to the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the State for which he is chosen.

Of the powers of the two Houses. "The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments; each house determines the validity of the elections and qualifications of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest, while attending on the session, going to, or returning from the same, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Of the powers of Congress. "The Congress of the United States have power to make and enforce all laws, which are necessary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, imposts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, establish uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, establish post-roads and post-offices, promote the arts and sciences, institute tribunals inferiour to the supreme court, define and punish piracy, declare war, and make reprisals, raise and support armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws necessary to carry these powers into effect.

Of Restrictions. "No bill of attainder, or retrospective law, shall be passed; the writ of habeas corpus cannot be suspended, except in cases of rebellion or invasion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a census of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports, no money can be drawn from the treasury, unless appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any publick officer, without the consent of congress, accept of any present or title from any foreign prince or state. The States are restrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or silver a tender for debts, and from passing any law impairing private contracts.

Of the Executive. "The executive power of the United

States is vested in a president, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for president, he must have been a citizen at the adoption of the constitution, or must be a native of the United States; he must have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. The president and vice-president are chosen by electors designated in such a manner as the legislature of each State shall direct. The number of electors, in each State is equal to the whole number of senators and representatives.

Of the powers of the President. "The president of the United States is commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the militia when in actual service. He grants reprieves and pardons; nominates, and, with the consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, judges, and other officers; and, with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions, receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of publick affairs, and in general, takes care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Of the Judiciary. "The Judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferiour courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behaviour, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The judicial power of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of publick ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the States, and in which the United States are a party; between citizens of different States; between a State and a citizen of another State, and between citizens of the same State, claiming under grants of different States; and to causes between one of the States or an American citizen, and a foreign State or citizen.

Of Rights and Immunities. "In all criminal trials, except impeachment, the trial by jury is guaranteed to the accused. Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted, but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate, except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each State are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States. Congress may admit new States into the

union, and the national compact guarantees, to each State, a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestick violence."

Section VII. By a resolution of the convention, it was recommended that assemblies should be called, in the different States, to discuss the merits of the constitution, and either accept or reject it; and, that as soon as nine States should have ratified it, it should be carried into operation by congress.

To decide the interesting question, respecting the adoption or rejection of the new constitution, the best talents of the several States were assembled in their respective conventions. The fate of the constitution could, for a time, be scarcely conjectured, so equally were the parties balanced. But, at length, the conventions of eleven States* assented to, and ratified the constitution.

Section VIII. From the moment it was settled that this new arrangement, in their political system, was to take place, the attention of all classes of people, as well anti-federalists as federalists, (for, by these names, the parties for and against the new constitution were called,) was directed to General Washington, as the first president of the United States. Accordingly, on the opening of the votes, for President, at New-York, March 3d, 1789, by delegates from eleven States, it was found that he was unanimously elected to that office, and that John Adams was elected vice-president.

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* North Carolina and Rhode Island refused their assent at this time, but afterwards acceded to it: the former, November, 1789; the latter May, 1790.

Notes.

Section IX **Manners.** The war of the revolution, as was observed in our notes on the last period, seriously affected the morals and manners of the people of the United States. The peace of 1783, however, tended, in a measure to restore things to their former state. Those sober habits, for which the country was previously distinguished, began to return; business assumed a more regular and equitable character; the tumultuous passions, roused by the war, subsided; and men of wisdom and worth began to acquire their proper influence.

The change wrought in the manners of the people, during the revolution, began, in this period, to appear. National peculiarities wore away still more; local prejudices were further corrected, and a greater assimilation of the yet discordant materials, of which the population of the United States was composed, took place.

Section X. **Religion.** *Methodism* was introduced into the United States, during this period, under the direction of John Wesley, in England. This denomination increased rapidly in the Middle States, and, in 1789, they amounted to about fifty thousand.

During this period, also, the *infidelity*, which we have noticed, seems to have lost ground. Publick worship was more punctually attended, than during the war, and the cause of religion began again to flourish.

Section XI. **Trade and Commerce.** The commerce of the United States, during the war of the revolution, as already stated, was nearly destroyed; but, on the return of peace, it revived. An excessive importation of goods immediately took place from England. In 1784,

the imports, from England alone, amounted to eighteen millions of dollars, and in 1785, to twelve millions—making, in those two years, thirty millions of dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only between eight and nine millions.

On the average of six years posterior to the war, the extent of this period, the imports from Great Britain into the United States, were two millions, one hundred and nineteen thousand, eight hundred and thirty-seven pounds sterling; the exports nine hundred and eight thousand, six hundred and thirty-six pounds sterling, leaving an annual balance of five millions, three hundred and twenty-nine thousand, two hundred and eighty-four dollars in favour of Great Britain.

The commercial intercourse of the United States with other countries was less extensive, than with England, yet it was not inconsiderable. From France and her dependencies, the United States imported, in 1787, to the amount of about two millions, five hundred thousand dollars, and exported to the same, to the value of five millions dollars.

The trade of the United States with China commenced soon after the close of the revolutionary war. The first American vessel that went on a trading voyage to China, sailed from New-York, on the 22d of February, 1784, and returned on the 11th of May 1785. In 1789 there were fifteen American vessels at Canton, being a greater number, than from any other nation, except Great Britain.

During this period, also, the Americans commenced the long and hazardous trading voyages to the North West Coast of America. The first of the kind, undertaken from the United States, was from Boston, in 1788, in a ship commanded by Capt. Kendrick. The trade afforded great profits, at first, and since 1788, has been carried on from the United States to a considerable extent.

The whale fishery, which during the war, was suspended, revived on the return of peace. From 1787 to 1789, both inclusive, ninety-one vessels were employed from the United States, with one thousand six hundred and eleven seamen. Nearly eight thousand barrels of spermacity oil were annually taken, and about thirteen thousand barrels of whale oil.

Small quantities of cotton were first exported from the United States about the year 1784. It was raised in Georgia.

Section XII. **Agriculture.** Agriculture revived at the close of the war, and, in a few

years, the exports of produce raised in the United States were again considerable. Attention began to be paid to the culture of cotton, in the southern States, about the year 1783, and it soon became a staple of that part of the country. About the same time, agricultural societies began to be formed in the country.

Section XIII. **Arts and Manufactures.** The excessive importation of merchandize from Great Britain, during this period—much of which was sold at low prices—checked the progress of manufactures in the United States, which had been extensively begun, during the war of the revolution. Iron works, however, for the construction of axes, ironing of carriages, and the making of machinery, &c. &c. were still kept up in all parts of the United States. Some coarse woollen and linen cloths, cabinet furniture, and the more bulky and simple utensils for domestick use, &c. &c. were manufactured, in New-England.

Section XIV. **Population.** The population of the United States, at the close of this period, was nearly four millions.

Section XV. **Education.** Several colleges were established, during this period—one in Maryland, at Annapolis, called St. John's college; a second, in 1785, at Abington, in the same state, by the Methodists, called Cokesbury college; a third, in the city of New-York; and a fourth, in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1787—The former, by the name of Columbia college, and the latter, by that of Franklin college. The North Carolina university was incorporated in 1789.

The subject of education, during this period,

seems to have attracted publick attention throughout the United States, and permanent institutions, for the instruction of youth, were either planned, or established, in every section of the country.

Reflections.

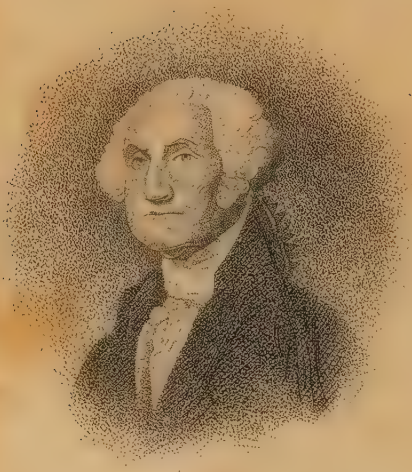
XVI. The history of the world furnishes no parallel to the history of the United States during this short period. At the commencement of it, they had but just emerged from a long and distressing war, which had nearly exhausted the country, and imposed an accumulated debt upon the nation. They were united by a confederation inadequate to the purposes of government; they had just disbanded an army which was unpaid, and dissatisfied, and more than all, they were untried in the art of self-government.

In circumstances like these, it would not have been strange had the people fallen into dissensions and anarchy, or had some bold, ambitious spirit arisen, and fastened the yoke of monarchy upon them. But a happier destiny awaited them. In this hour of peril, the same Providence, that had guided them thus far still watched over them, and, as victory was granted them in the hour of battle, so wisdom was now vouchsafed in a day of peace. Those master spirits of the revolution, some of whom had recently retired from the camp to the enjoyment of civil life, were now called to devise the means of securing the independence which they had won. Perhaps they exhibited to the world a no less striking spectacle as the framers of our excellent constitution, than as victors over the arms of Britain.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES



GEORGE WASHINGTON

INAUGURATED PRESIDENT

1789

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

UNITED STATES.

Period VIII.

DISTINGUISHED BY WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Washington, 1789, to the inauguration of John Adams, as president of the United States, 1797.

Section I. On the 30th of April, 1789, Gen. Washington, in the presence of the first congress, under the Federal Constitution, and before an immense concourse of spectators, was inducted into the office of President of the United States, by taking the oath prescribed by the constitution.

Intelligence of his election was communicated to Washington, while on his *farm* in Virginia. On his way to New-York, to enter upon the duties of his station, he received, in almost every place through which he passed, the highest expressions of affection and respect, that a grateful people could pay.

Soon after his arrival in New-York, a day was assigned for his taking the oath of office. On the morning of that day, publick prayers were offered in all the churches. At noon, a procession was formed, which escorted Washington, dressed on the occasion wholly in American manufactures, to Federal Hall. Here the oath prescribed by the constitution was administered to him, by the chancellour of the State of New-York.

The ceremonies of the inauguration being concluded, Washington entered the senate chamber, and delivered his first speech. In this, after expressing the reluctance with which he obeyed the call of his countrymen, from repose and retirement, so ardently coveted, after a series of military toils, and the diffidence with which he entered upon an office, so full of responsibility, he proceeded thus:

"It will be peculiarly improper to omit, in this *first* official

act, my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being, who rules over the universe; who presides in the councils of nations," &c. Thus did Washington, in the commencement of his administration, publickly appear on the side of *religion;* nor was he ashamed to acknowledge, before the nation, his sense of dependence upon God, for wisdom and direction.

Section II. Business of importance, in relation to the organization and support of the new government, now pressed upon the attention of the president, and of congress. A revenue was to be provided; the departments of government were to be arranged and filled; a judiciary was to be established, and its officers appointed; and provision was to be made for the support of publick credit.

After a long discussion, congress agreed to raise a revenue for the support of government, by impost and tonnage duties. Having next fixed upon, and arranged the several departments of the government, the president, whose duty it was, proceeded to nominate the proper persons to fill them. In performing this service, he appears to have been actuated, simply, by a regard to the best good of the country.

Mr. Jefferson was selected for the department of State; Col. Hamilton was appointed secretary of the treasury; Gen. Knox secretary of war, and Edmund Randolph attorney general. At the head of the judiciary was placed John Jay, and with him were appointed John Rutledge, James Wilson, William Cushing, Robert Harrison, and John Blair.

During this session of congress, several new articles were proposed to be added to the constitution, by way of amendment, and to be submitted to the several States for their approbation.

After a long and animated discussion of the subject, twelve new articles were agreed upon, which, when submitted to the respective State legislatures, were approved by three-fourths of them, and were thus added to the constitution.

Congress adjourned on the 29th of September. It was among their concluding acts, to direct the secretary of the treasury to prepare a plan for adequately providing for the support of the public credit, and to report the same at their next meeting.

Section III. During the recess of congress, Washington made a tour into New-England. Passing through Connecticut and Massachusetts, and into New-Hampshire, as far as Portsmouth, he returned by a different route to New-York.

With this excursion, the president had much reason to be gratified. To observe the progress of society, the improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, and the temper, circumstances, and dispositions of the people—while it could not fail to please an intelligent and benevolent mind, was, in all respects, worthy of the chief magistrate of the nation. He was every where received with expressions of the purest affection, and could not fail to rejoice in the virtue, religion, happiness, and prosperity of the people, at the head of whose government he was placed.

Section IV. The second session of the first congress commenced, January 8th, 1790. In obedience to the resolution of the former congress, the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, made his report on the subject of maintaining the public credit.

In this report, he strongly recommended to congress, as the only mode, in his opinion, in which the public credit would be supported:

1. That provision be made for the full dis-

charge of the foreign debt, according to the precise terms of the contract.

2. That provision be made for the payment of the domestick debt, in a similar manner.

3 That the debts of the several States, created for the purpose of carrying on the war, be assumed by the general government.

The proposal for making adequate provision for the foreign debt was met, cordially and unanimously; but, respecting the full discharge of the domestic debt, and the assumption of the State debts, much division prevailed in congress. After a spirited and protracted debate on these subjects, the recommendation of the secretary prevailed, and bills conformable thereto passed, by a small majority.

The division of sentiment among the members of congress, in relation to the full, or only a partial payment of the domestick debt, arose from this. A considerable proportion of the original holders of publick securities had found it necessary to sell them, at a reduced price—even as low as two or three shillings on the pound. These securities had been purchased by speculators, with the expectation of ultimately receiving the full amount. Under these circumstances, it was contended by some, that congress would perform their duty, should they pay to all holders of publick securities only the reduced market price. Others advocated a discrimination between the present holders of securities, and those to whom the debt was originally due &c. &c.

In his report, Mr. Hamilton ably examined these several points, and strongly maintained the justice of paying to all holders of securities, without discrimination, the full value of what appeared on the face of their certificates. This he contended, justice demanded, and for this, the publick faith was pledged.

By the opposers of the bill, which related to the assumption of the State debts, the constitutional authority of the federal government for this purpose was questioned; and the policy and justice of the measure controverted.

To cancel the several debts which congress thus undertook to discharge, the proceeds of

publick lands, lying in the western territory, were directed to be applied, together with the surplus revenue, and a loan of two millions of dollars, which the president was authorized to borrow, at an interest of five per cent.

This measure laid the foundation of publick credit upon such a basis, that government paper soon rose from two shillings and six pence to twenty shillings on the pound, and, indeed, for a short time, was above par. Individuals, who had purchased certificates of public debt low, realized immense fortunes. A general spring was given to the affairs of the nation. A spirit of enterprise, of agriculture, and commerce, universally prevailed, and the foundation was thus laid for that unrivalled prosperity which the United States, in subsequent years, enjoyed.

Section V. During this session of congress, a bill was passed, fixing the seat of government for ten years at Philadelphia, and, from and after that time, permanently at Washington, on the Potomac.

Section VI. On the 4th of March, 1791, VERMONT, by consent of congress, became one of the United States.

The tract of country, which is now known by the name of Vermont, was settled at a much later period, than any other of the eastern states. The governments of New-York and Massachusetts made large grants of territory in the direction of Vermont; but it was not until 1724, that any actual possession was taken of land, within the present boundaries of the State. In that year, Fort Durance was built, by the officers of Massachusetts, on Connecticut river. On the other side of the state, the French advanced up lake Champlain, and, in 1731, built Crown Point, and began a settlement on the eastern shore of the lake.

Vermont being supposed to fall within the limits of New Hampshire, that government made large grants of land to settlers, even west of Connecticut river. New-York, however, con-

ceived herself to have a better right to the territory, in consequence of the grant of Charles II. to his brother the duke of York. These states being thus at issue, the case was submitted to the English crown, which decided in favour of New-York, and confirmed its jurisdiction, as far as Connecticut river. In this decision New Hampshire acquiesced; but New-York persisting in its claims to land east of the river, actions of ejectment were instituted in the courts at Albany, which resulted in favour of the New-York title. The settlers, however, determined to resist the officers of justice, and under Ethan Allen, associated together to oppose the New-York militia, which were called out to enforce the laws.

On the commencement of the revolution, the people of Vermont were placed in an embarrassing situation. They had not even a form of government. The jurisdiction of New-York being disclaimed, and allegiance to the British crown refused, every thing was effected by voluntary agreement. In January, 1777, a convention met and proclaimed that the district before known by the name of the New Hampshire grants, was of right a free and independent jurisdiction, and should be henceforth called *New Connecticut, alias* Vermont. The convention proceeded to make known their proceedings to congress, and petitioned to be admitted into the confederacy. To this, New-York objected, and for a time, prevailed. Other difficulties arose with New Hampshire and Massachusetts, each of which laid claim to land within the present boundaries of the state. At the peace of 1783, Vermont found herself a sovereign and independent state *de facto*, united with no confederation and therefore unembarrassed by the debts that weighed down the other states. New-York still claimed jurisdiction over the state, but was unable to enforce it, and the state government was administered as regularly as in any of the other states. After the formation of the federal constitution, Vermont again requested admission into the Union. The opposition of New-York was still strong, but in 1789 was finally withdrawn, upon the consent of Vermont to pay her the sum of thirty thousand dollars. Thus terminated a controversy which had been carried on with animosity, and with injury to both parties, for twenty-six years. A convention was immediately called, by which it was resolved to join the federal union. Upon application to congress, their consent was readily given, and on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was added to the United States.

Section VII. At the time that congress assumed the State debts, during their second session, the secretary of the treasury had recom-

mended a tax on domestick spirits, to enable them to pay the interest. The discussion of the bill having been postponed to the third session, was early in that session taken up. The tax, contemplated by the bill, was opposed with great vehemence, by a majority of southern and western members, on the ground that it was unnecessary and unequal, and would be particularly burdensome upon those parts of the Union, which could not, without very great expense, procure foreign ardent spirits. Instead of this tax, these members proposed an increased duty on imported articles generally, a particular duty on molasses, a direct tax, or a tax on salaries, &c. &c. After giving rise to an angry and protracted debate, the bill passed, by a majority of thirty-five to twenty-one.

Section VIII. The secretary next appeared with a recommendation for a national bank. A bill, conforming to his plan, being sent down from the senate, was permitted to progress, unmolested, in the house of representatives, to the third reading. On the final reading, an unexpected opposition appeared against it, on the ground that banking systems were useless, that the proposed bill was defective, but, especially, that congress was not vested, by the constitution, with the competent power to establish a national bank.

These several objections were met by the supporters of the bill, with much strength of argument. After a debate of great length, supported with the ardour excited by the importance of the subject, the bill was carried in the affirmative, by a majority of nineteen voices.

A bill which had been agitated with so much warmth, in the house of representatives, the executive was now called upon to examine with reference to its sanction or rejection. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. The secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson, and the attorney general, Mr. Randolph, considered the bill as decidedly unconstitutional. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, with equal decision, maintained the opposite opinion. A deliberate investigation of the subject satisfied the president, both of the constitutionality and utility of the bill, upon which he gave it his signature.

The bill which had now passed, with those relating to the finances of the country, the assumption of the state debts, the funding of the national debt, &c. contributed greatly to the complete organization of those distinct and visible parties, which, in their long and ardent conflict for power, have since shaken the United States to their centre.

Section IX. While matters of high importance were occupying the attention, and party strife and conflicting interests were filling the counsels of congress with agitation, an Indian war opened on the north-western frontier of the States. Pacifick arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes, without effect. On the failure of these, an offensive expedition was planned against the tribes, northwest of the Ohio.

The command of the troops, consisting of three hundred regulars, and about one thousand two hundred Pennsylvania and Kentucky militia, was given to Gen. Harmar, a veteran officer of the revolution. His instructions required him, if possible, to bring the Indians to an engagement; but, in any event, to destroy their settlements, on the waters of the Scioto, a river falling into the Ohio, and the Wabash, in the Indiana territory. In this expedition Harmar succeeded in destroying some villages and a quantity of grain, belonging to the Indians; but in an engagement with them, near

Chilicothe, he was routed with considerable loss.

Upon the failure of Gen. Harmar, Major-General Arthur St. Clair was appointed to succeed him. Under the authority of an act of congress, the president caused a body of levies to be raised for six months, for the Indian service.

Section X. Having arranged the northwestern expedition, directing St. Clair to destroy the Indian villages, on the Miami, and to drive the savages from the Ohio, the president commenced a tour through the southern States, similar to that which he had made through the northern and central parts of the union, in 1789.

The same expressions of respect and affection awaited him, in every stage of his tour, which had been so zealously accorded to him in the north. Here, also, he enjoyed the high satisfaction of witnessing the most happy effects, resulting from the administration of that government over which he presided.

Section XI. On the 24th of October, 1791, the second congress commenced its first session. Among the subjects that early engaged their attention, was a bill "for apportioning representatives among the people of the several States, according to the first census." After much discussion, concerning the ratio that should be adopted, between representation and population, congress finally fixed it at one representative to each State, for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants.

The first bill fixed the ratio at one representative for every thirty thousand inhabitants; but to this bill the senate would not agree. A second bill was introduced, providing one representative for every thirty thousand, and dividing eight representatives among those States which had the greatest fractions. This bill the president returned to the house, whence it originated, as unconstitutional, as by it, eight States would send more representatives than their population allowed.

Section XII. In December, intelligence was

received by the president, that the army under Gen. St. Clair, in battle with the Indians, near the Miami, in Ohio, had been totally defeated on the 4th of the preceding month.

The army of St. Clair amounted to near one thousand five hundred men. The Indian force consisted of nearly the same number. Of the loss of the Indians, no estimate could be formed; but the loss of the Americans was unusually severe; thirty-eight commissioned officers were killed in the field, and five hundred and ninety-three non-commissioned officers and privates were slain and missing. Between two and three hundred officers and privates were wounded, many of whom afterwards died. This result of the expedition was as unexpected, as unfortunate; but no want either of ability, zeal or intrepidity, was ascribed, by a committee of congress, appointed to examine the causes of its failure, to the commander of the expedition.

Section XIII. Upon the news of St. Clair's defeat, a bill was introduced into congress for raising three additional regiments of infantry, and a squadron of cavalry, to serve for three years, if not sooner discharged. This bill, although finally carried, met with an opposition more warm and pointed, from the opposers of the administration, than any which had before been agitated in the house.

By those who opposed the bill, it was urged that the war with the Indians was unjust; that militia would answer as well, and even better than regular troops, and would be less expensive to support; that adequate funds could not be provided; and more than all, that this addition of one regiment to the army after another gave fearful intimation of monarchical designs, on the part of those who administered the government.

On the other hand, the advocates of the bill contended, that the war was a war of self defence; that between the years 1783 and 1790, not less than one thousand five hundred inhabitants of Kentucky, or emigrants to that country, and probably double that number, had been massacred by the Indians; and that repeated efforts had been made by the government to obtain a peace, notwithstanding which, the butcheries of the savages still continued in their most appalling forms.

Section XIV. On the 8th of May, 1792, congress adjourned to the first Monday in Novem

ber. The asperity which, on more than one occasion, had discovered itself in the course of debate, was a certain index of the growing exasperation of parties. With their adjournment, the conflicting feelings of members in a measure subsided; the opposition, however, to the administration, had become fixed. It was carried into retirement—was infused by members into their constituents, and a party was thus formed throughout the nation, hostile to the plans of government adopted by Washington, and his friends in the cabinet.

Section XV. On the first of June, 1792, KENTUCKY, by act of congress, was admitted into the Union as a State.

The country, now called Kentucky, was well known to the Indian traders, many years before its settlement. By whom it was first explored, is a matter of uncertainty, and has given rise to controversy. In 1752, a map was published by Lewis Evans, of the country on the Ohio and Kentucky rivers; and it seems that one James Macbride, with others, visited this region in 1754. No further attempt was made to explore the country until 1767, when John Finley of North Carolina, travelled over the ground on the Kentucky river, called by the Indians, "the dark and bloody ground." On returning to Carolina, Finley communicated his discoveries to Col. Daniel Boone, who in 1769, with some others, undertook to explore the country. After a long and fatiguing march, they discovered the beautiful valley of Kentucky. Col. Boone continued an inhabitant of this wilderness until 1771, when he returned to his family for the purpose of removing them, and forming a settlement in the new country. In 1773, having made the necessary preparations, he set out again with five families and forty men, from Powell's Valley, and after various impediments, reached the Kentucky river, in March 1775, where he commenced a settlement.

In the years, 1778, 1779, and 1780, a considerable number of persons emigrated to Kentucky; yet, in this latter year, after an unusually severe winter, the inhabitants were so distressed that they came the determination of abandoning the country for ever. They were fortunately diverted from this step, by the arrival of emigrants. During the revolutionary war they suffered

severely from the Indians, incited by the British government. In 1778, Gen. Clarke overcame the Indians, and laid waste their villages. From this time the inhabitants began to feel more secure, and the settlements were extended. In 1779, the legislature of Virginia, within whose limits this region lay, erected it into a county. In 1782, a supreme court, with an attorney-general, was established within the district. In the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, the district was laid out into counties and a great part of the country surveyed and patented. In 1785 an attempt was made to form an independent State; but a majority of the inhabitants being opposed to the measure, it was delayed until December, 1790, when it became a separate state.

In 1792, as stated above, it was admitted into the Union. The growth of Kentucky has been rapid, and she has obtained a respectable rank and influence among her sister States.

Section XVI. During the recess of congress, preparations were hastened by the president for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians; but such small inducements were presented to engage in the service, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them the present year. As the clamour against the war, by the opposers of the administration, was still loud, the president deemed it advisable, while preparations for hostilities were advancing, to make another effort at negotiation, with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Col. Harden and Maj. Freeman, two brave officers, and valuable men, who were murdered by the savages.

Section XVII. On the opening of the next congress, in November, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment, but it did not prevail. The debate on this subject was peculiarly earnest, and the danger of standing armies was powerfully urged. This motion, designed as a reflection upon the executive, was followed by several resolutions, introduced by

Mr. Giles, tending to criminate the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, of misconduct, in relation to certain loans, negotiated under his direction.

In three distinct reports, sent to the house, the secretary offered every required explanation, and ably defended himself against the attacks of the opposition. Mr. Giles, and some others, however, were not satisfied: other resolutions were, therefore, offered, which, although rejected, were designed to fix upon the secretary the reputation of an ambitious man, aiming at the acquisition of dangerous power.

During these discussions, vehement attacks were made upon the secretary, in the publick prints. Hints also were suggested against the president himself; and although he was not openly accused of being the head of the federal party, of favouring their cause, or designing to subvert the liberties of his country, yet it was apparent that such suspicions were entertained of him.

On the 3d of March, 1793, a constitutional period was put to the existence of this congress. The members separated with obvious symptoms of irritation; and it was not to be doubted that their efforts would be exerted to communicate to their constituents the feelings which agitated their bosoms.

Section XVIII. The time had now arrived, 1793, when the electors of the States were again called upon to choose a chief magistrate of the Union. Washington had determined to withhold himself from being again elected to the presidency, and to retire from the cares of political life. Various considerations, however, prevented the declaration of his wishes, and he was again unanimously elected to the chair of State. Mr. Adams was re-elected vice-president.

Section XIX. Through the unceasing endeavours of the president to terminate the Indian war, a treaty had been negotiated with the Indians, on the Wabash; and through the intervention of the Six Nations, those of the Miami had consented to a conference during the ensuing spring. Offensive operations were therefore, suspended, although the recruiting service was industriously urged, and assiduous attention was paid to the discipline and preparation of the troops.

Section XX. The Indian war, though of real importance, was becoming an object of secondary consideration. The revolution in France was now progressing, and began so to affect our relation with that country, as to require an exertion of all the wisdom and firmness of the government. Early in April, also, information was received of the declaration of war by France, against England and Holland.

This event excited the deepest interest in the United States. A large majority of the people grateful for the aid that France had given us in our revolution, and devoted to the cause of liberty, were united in fervent wishes for the success of the French republick.* At the same

*The revolution in France commenced about the year 1789. It seemed to have been hastened, or brought on, by the new ideas of freedom, which had been imbibed by the French army in the United States, and thence disseminated among the people of France, for a long time oppressed and degraded by a despotick government. Unfortunately, the revolution fell into the hands of selfish and unprincipled men, who, in 1793, executed their king, Louis XVI. and, soon after, his family, and murdered or imprisoned those who were suspected of hostility to their views, and involved France in a scene of guilt and bloodshed, which cannot be contemplated without horrour. In the first stages of this revolution, the friends of liberty throughout the world were full of hopes for a melioration of the political condition of France; but these hopes were soon blasted by the sanguinary steps adopted by the revolutionists. Had they been men governed

time, the prejudices against Great Britain, which had taken deep root during the revolution, now sprung forth afresh, and the voice of many was heard, urging the propriety of the United States making a common cause with France against Great Britain.

A pressing occurrence had called Washington to Mount Vernon, when intelligence arrived of the rupture between France and England. Hastening his return to Philadelphia, he summoned the attention of his cabinet to several questions respecting the course of conduct, proper for the United States to observe in relation to the belligerents.

Although sensible of the prejudices existing in the country against Great Britain, and of the friendly disposition which prevailed towards France, it was the unanimous opinion of the cabinet, that a strict neutrality should be observed by the United States towards the contending powers. The council was also unanimous that a minister from the French Republick should be received, should one be sent.

In accordance with the advice of his cabinet, the president issued his proclamation of neutrality, on the 22d of April, 1793. This proclamation, being without legislative sanction, soon became the subject of loud invective. The opposition party, through the press, pronounced it "a royal edict," an assumption of power on the part of the president, and a proof of his monarchical disposition. They denounced the con-

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ed by reason and religion, instead of unbridled ambition; actuated by a philanthropick regard to the good of the people, instead of a selfish thirst of power: France to this day might have enjoyed the blessings of a free government.

duct of the executive as dishonourable, and a act of neutrality, as high ingratitude toward France, the firm and magnanimous ally of th United States, which had assisted in achievin the liberties of the country.

Section XXI. In this state of things, the Re publick of France recalled the minister of th crown, and appointed Mr. Genet to succee him. His mission had for its object the enlis ing of America in the cause of France, agains Great Britain. Flattered by the manner i which he was received by the people, as well a by their professions of attachment to his cou try, Mr. Genet early anticipated the accomplish ment of his object.—Presuming too much upo this attachment, he was led into a series of ac infringing the neutrality proclaimed by the pr sident. He also attempted to rouse the peop against the government, because it did not s cond all his views. At length, on the advic of his cabinet, the president solicited of th French Republick the recall of Mr. Genet, an the appointment of some one to succeed hin Monsieur Fauchet was appointed, and was i structed to assure the American governmen that France totally disapproved of the condu of his predecessor.

Mr. Genet, on his arrival in the country, landed at Charl ton S. C. He was received by the governour of that State, a by the citizens, with a flow of enthusiastick feeling, equalled on by that which had been evinced towards his nation at the co quest of Yorktown.

Soon after landing at Charleston, he began to authorize t fitting and arming of vessels, in that port, enlisting men, a giving commissions to cruise and commit hostilities against n tions, with which the United States were at peace. Vessels ca tured by these cruisers were brought into port, and the cons of France, under the authority of Genet, not yet recognized a minister by the American government, assumed the power

holding courts of admiralty on them, of trying and condemning them, and of authorizing their sale. Upon a complaint of the British minister, Mr. Hammond, the American cabinet unanimously condemned those proceedings, and agreed that the efficacy of the laws should be tried against those citizens, who had been concerned in them. Prosecutions were accordingly ordered and actually commenced.

The decisions and conduct of the cabinet gave great umbrage to Genet, who had now been accredited as the minister of France. In his communications to the secretary of state, his dissatisfaction was expressed in strong terms, and the executive charged with holding opinions, and adopting a course diametrically opposed to the views and wishes of the American people. In language highly offensive and reprehensible, he demanded that those persons under arrest, by order of the government of the United States, should be released, "on the ground that they were acting under the authority of France, and defending the glorious cause of liberty in common with her children." And at length, he incautiously avowed the purpose, should his demands not be complied with, of appealing from the president to the people.

The language and conduct of Genet made a deep impression on the officers of the administration; but happily, they preserved, in all their communications with that gentleman, a becoming dignity, and continued to express a high respect and affection for his nation, and an earnest desire to promote its interests.

On the meeting of congress, December, 1793, the proclamation of neutrality was approved by them, as well as the conduct of the government towards Mr. Genet.

Finding on most questions, arising between the French minister and the government of the United States, a wide and an increasing difference of views, and perceiving no beneficial effects resulting from his continuance in that character, the cabinet unanimously advised his recall.

Section XXII. 1794. On the last day of December, 1793, Mr. Jefferson, the secretary of state, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, the then attorney-general. This latter office was filled by William Bradford, a gentleman of considerable eminence in Pennsylvania.

Section XXIII. During the session of congress this year, a resolution passed to provide a

naval force adequate to the protection of the commerce of the United States, against the Algerine corsairs. The force proposed was to consist of six frigates, four of forty-four, and two of thirty-six guns.

This measure was founded upon the communications of the president, from which it appeared that the prospect of being able to negotiate a treaty of peace with the dey of Algiers was doubtful; that eleven American merchant vessels, and upwards of one hundred citizens had been captured by them; and that further preparations were making for a renewed attack upon unprotected vessels, belonging to the United States.

Section XXIV. During this session of congress a law passed, prohibiting the carrying on of the slave trade from the American ports.

England had been actively engaged in the slave trade nearly fifty years, when the first settlement was effected in Virginia. Slavery was early introduced into the American colonies. The first slaves, about twenty in number, were brought to Virginia in 1619, by a Dutch ship. The importation of them gradually increased, and although principally bought by the southern planters, slaves were soon found, in great numbers, in all the colonies. In 1784, they amounted to six hundred thousand. In 1790, to six hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-six.

A disgust towards this inhuman traffick appeared very early in the colonies; but it was countenanced and patronized by the English government, and thus introduced into, and fastened upon the country, without the power, on the part of the colonies, to arrest it.

In Massachusetts, in 1645, a law was made, "prohibiting the buying and selling of slaves, except those taken in lawful war, or reduced to servitude by their crimes." In 1703, the same colony imposed a heavy duty on every negro imported; and in a subsequent law on the subject, they called the practice "*the unnatural and unaccountable custom of enslaving mankind.*" In Virginia, as early as 1699, attempts were made to repress the importation of slaves, by heavy duties. These, and other acts, show that the North American provinces would, if left to themselves, have put an end to the importation of slaves before the era of their independence.

In 1778, Virginia abolished the traffick by law; Connecticut, Rhode-Island, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts prohibited it before the year 1789. The continental congress passed a reso-

lution against the purchase of slaves, imported from Africa, and exhorted the colonies to abandon the trade altogether. The third congress of the United States, as stated above, prohibited the trade, by law. Thus we see, in the United States, a very early and settled aversion to the slave trade manifesting itself, and before European nations had consented to relinquish it, several of the States had utterly prohibited it.

Section XXV. At this session, also, several measures were adopted in anticipation of a war with Great Britain, growing out of her commercial restriction, which bore heavy, and operated most unjustly upon the U. States. Bills were passed for laying an embargo for thirty days—for erecting fortifications—for organizing the militia, and increasing the standing army. As an adjustment of differences, however, seemed desirable, Mr. Jay was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of St. James, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain the following year.

Among the offensive acts of the government of Great Britain, was an order of June, 1793, prohibiting the exportation of corn to France, and authorizing the capture of neutral vessels carrying it thither. Under this order, many American vessels were captured, and carried into England. In November following, additional instructions were given by the British cabinet, to ships of war, and privateers, to bring into port, for trial, all ships laden with goods from France, or her colonies, and such as were carrying provisions, or other supplies, to either. To these causes of complaint, Great Britain had added another, viz. neglecting to deliver up the western posts according to treaty.

While measures were taking, in anticipation of war, the president received advices from England, that the order of November had been considerably modified; that most of the merchant vessels, which had been carried into port for trial, would be released; and that a disposition for peace with the United States existed in the British cabinet.

These advices opened to the president a prospect of restoring a good understanding between the two nations, and induced him immediately to nominate an envoy to settle existing differences,

and to negotiate commercial arrangements. The nomination of Mr. Jay was approved, in the senate, by a majority of ten.

To those opposed to the administration, no step could have been more unexpected, or disagreeable, than this decisive measure of the president. Prejudices against Great Britain had risen to their height, and hostilities against her were loudly demanded, as both just and necessary. It was not singular, therefore, that for this act, the president should receive the severest censures of the opposition party, nor that all who favoured his efforts for peace should be included in the general denunciation.

Section XXVI. The suspension of hostilities against the Indians in the northwest, in consequence of their consenting to a conference in the spring of 1794, has already been noticed. This effort to conclude a treaty with them failing, Gen. Wayne, who had succeeded Gen. St. Clair, engaged the Indians, August 20th, 1794, on the banks of the Miami, and gained a complete victory over them.

The American troops engaged in this battle did not exceed nine hundred; the Indians amounted to two thousand. In this decisive engagement, Gen Wayne lost one hundred and seven in killed and wounded, including officers. After the battle he proceeded to lay waste the whole Indian country. By means of this victory over the Miamis, a general war with the Six Nations, and all the tribes northwest of the Ohio, was prevented.

Section XXVII. This year, 1794, was distinguished by an insurrection in Pennsylvania, growing out of laws enacted by congress, in 1791, laying duties on spirits distilled within the United States, and upon stills. In August, the president issued his proclamation, commanding the insurgents to disperse. This not having the desired effect, a respectable body of militia was ordered out, under Gov. Lee, of Maryland, on whose approach the insurgents laid down their arms, solicited the clemency of the government, and promised future submission to the laws.

From the time that duties were laid upon spirits distilled with

in the United States, &c. combinations were formed, in the four western counties of Pennsylvania, to prevent their collection. Numerous meetings were held at different times and places, at which resolutions were passed, and, in several instances, violences were committed upon the officers of the revenue. Eighteen of the insurgents were taken, and tried for treason, but not convicted.

Section XXVIII. 1795. January 1st, Col. Hamilton resigned the office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut. Nearly at the same time, Timothy Pickering succeeded Gen. Knox, in the department of war.

Section XXIX. In June, Mr. Jay, having succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain, the senate was convened to consider its merits. After an elaborate discussion of it, that body advised to its ratification by a majority of twenty to ten. Notwithstanding the great opposition to it that prevailed among the enemies of Great Britain, the president gave it his signature. Contrary to the predictions of many in the country, the treaty settled existing difficulties between the two nations, prevented a war, which previously seemed fast approaching, and proved of great advantage to the United States.

The treaty, when published, found one party prepared for its condemnation, while the other was not ready for its defence. Time was necessary for a judicious and careful consideration of its merits.

In the populous cities, meetings were immediately called, and resolutions and addresses forwarded to the president, requesting him to withhold his assent. Upon the president, however, these had no other effect, than to induce him to weigh still more carefully the merits of the treaty. When, at length, he was satisfied of its utility, he signed it, although he thereby incurred the censures of a numerous portion of the citizens.

Section XXX. In the course of the following autumn, treaties were concluded with the dey of Algiers, and with the Miamis in the west.

By the former treaty, American citizens, in captivity in Algiers, were liberated, and by the latter, the western frontiers of the United States were secured from savage invasion. A treaty with Spain soon after followed, by which the claims of the United States, on the important points of boundary, and the navigation of the Mississippi, were fully conceded.

Section XXXI. On the 1st of June, 1796, TENNESSEE was admitted, by act of congress, into the Union as a State.

Tennessee derives its name from its principal river. This name, in the language of the Indians, signifies a curved *spoon*; the curvature, to their imaginations, resembling that of the river Tennessee.

The territory of Tennessee was granted in 1664, by Charles II. to the earl of Clarendon, and others, being included in the limits of the Carolinas. About the beginning of the next century, Carolina was divided into two provinces, and Tennessee fell to the lot of the northern province. Near the year 1754 fifty families were settled on the Cumberland river, where Nashville now stands; but they were dislodged by the savages soon after. In 1765, a number of emigrants settled themselves beyond the present limits of North Carolina, and were the first of the colonists of Tennessee. By the year 1773, the inhabitants had considerably increased. When the constitution of North Carolina was formed, in 1776, that district sent deputies to the meeting. In the year 1780, a small colony of about forty families, under the direction of James Robertson, crossed the mountains, and settled on the Cumberland river, where they founded Nashville. In 1785, the inhabitants of Tennessee, feeling the inconveniencies of a government so remote as that in the capital of North Carolina, endeavoured to form an independent one, to which they intended to give the name of the "State of Franklin;" but differing among themselves, the scheme for the time was abandoned. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina passed an act, ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States. Congress, in the following year, accepted the cession, and by another act, passed on the 26th of May, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The territory of the United States, south of the Ohio." In 1796, Congress passed an act enabling the people to form a state constitution,

which having been adopted and approved, Tennessee was acknowledged as a sovereign state in the union.

Section XXXII. On the meeting of congress in 1796, resolutions were passed to carry into effect the treaties negotiated the preceding year. On the subject of the treaty with Great Britain, the liveliest sensibility still prevailed. After a spirited and protracted debate of seven weeks, on the subject of making the necessary arrangements for this treaty, resolutions to that effect passed the house by a majority of only three.

Section XXXIII. As the time for a new election of the chief magistrate of the Union approached, Gen. Washington signified his intention to retire from publick life. Wishing to terminate his political course with an act suitable to his own character, and permanently useful to his countrymen, he published a valedictory address to the people of the United States, fraught with maxims of the highest political importance, and with sentiments of the warmest affection for his country.

In February, 1797, the votes for his successor were opened, and counted in the presence of both houses of congress. The highest number appearing in favour of Mr. Adams, he was declared to be elected president of the United States, for the four years ensuing, commencing on the 4th of March. Mr. Jefferson succeeded Mr. Adams in the vice-presidency.

Notes.

Section XXXIV. **Manners.** We can remark, during this period, no very distinct

change in the manners of the people of the United States, except that the introduction of French philosophy seems to have affected, in some degree, the sober habits and strict morality of the people, which, although relaxed by the war, had now begun to resume their influence.

Section XXXV. **Religion.** At the close of the preceding period, we observed that religion had revived, in a degree, from the injuries it suffered during the revolutionary war; and we might have expected, that under the auspices of a wise and settled government, conducted by a practical christian, like Washington, it would have acquired a still more commanding influence. Such, however, was not the fact.

As the people of the United States heartily espoused the cause of the revolution in France and sympathized with that people, in their struggle for freedom, it was but too natural, that the sentiments of the revolutionists, on other than political subjects, should be imbibed. As the French revolutionists were almost universally deists, or atheists, these sentiments were extensively spread over the United States.

For a time, the boldness of the enterprises, the splendour of the victories, and the importance of the conquests, achieved by the French republick, promoted the extension of French infidelity in the United States. "Most eyes," says Dr. Dwight, "were disabled from seeing the nature of the purposes, which the revolutionists had in view, and of the characters which were exhibited on this singular stage. In the agitation and amazement excited in all men, few retained so steady opticks as to discern, without confusion, the necessary consequence of this stupendous shock."

Infidelity was also greatly extended, at this time, by the writings of Paine, Godwin, and others, which were industriously

circulated through the country.* The perspicuous and simple style of Paine, his keen powers of ridicule, directed against the Bible, and above all, the gratitude which multitudes felt for the aid his pen had given to our revolution, contributed to impart to him a peculiarly powerful influence. His vicious life, however, and the horrible enormities, committed by the French revolutionists, gave such a fearful comment upon their principles, as at length, in a great measure, to bring them into discredit, and to arrest their growing influence.

Section XXXVI. **Trade and Commerce.** These flourished, during this period, beyond all former example. In 1797, the exports of the United States, of all kinds, amounted to fifty-six millions, eight hundred and fifty thousand, two hundred and six dollars. The imports amounted to seventy-five millions, three hundred and seventy-nine thousand, four hundred and six dollars. Our vessels visited every part of the world, and brought wealth and luxuries from every country.

Section XXXVII. **Agriculture.** Aside from the importance of agriculture, as furnishing us with the greatest portion of our food, it began now to derive greater consequence, as furnishing materials for our manufactures, and, still more, as contributing largely to our exports. In 1796, it was estimated that *three-fourths* of the inhabitants of the United States, if not a greater proportion, were employed in agricultural pursuits.

Section XXXVIII. **Arts and Manufactures.** During this period, manufactures attracted the attention of government. Mr. Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, made a report to congress, on the subject, in which he set forth

* Godwin's Political Justice, and Paine's Age of Reason, powerfully urged on the tide of infidelity. An enormous edition of the latter publication was printed in France, and sent to America, to be sold for a few pence only: and where it could not be sold, it was given away.

their importance to the country, and urged the policy of aiding them. Since that time, the revenue laws have been framed, with a view to the encouragement of manufactures, and their promotion has been considered as a part of the settled policy of the United States. Although the flourishing state of commerce commanded the attention, and absorbed the capital of the country, in some degree, to the exclusion of other objects, still manufactures made considerable progress.

Section XXXIX. **Population.** The inhabitants of the United States, at the close of this period, amounted to about five millions.

Section XL. **Education.** The adoption of the federal constitution placed the political affairs of the United States on a permanent basis, and since that period, learning has flourished.

In 1791, the university of Vermont was established at Burlington; Williams' College, Massachusetts, in 1793; Union College, at Schenectady, New-York, and Greenville College, Tennessee, in 1794; Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, in Maine, 1795. An historical society was formed in Massachusetts, in 1791, and incorporated in 1794. It has published twelve volumes of documents, designed to illustrate the past and present state of the country.

Reflections.

XLI. A short time since, we were occupied in considering the United States struggling for independence, under Washington, as *a leader of their armies.* Under his guidance, we saw them triumph, and become a free nation. We have also seen them, with Washington at the *head of the convention*, forming our excellent constitution. We *now* see them with Washington their *chief magistrate*, taking their place among the sovereignties of the earth, and launching forth on the full tide of successful experiment.

Under Washington, as our leader, we won our independence; formed our constitution; established our government. And what reward does he ask for services like these? Does he ask

a diadem? Does he lay his hand upon our national treasury? Does he claim to be emperor of the nation that has risen up under his auspices? No—although "first in war—first in peace—first in the hearts of his countrymen,"—he sublimely retires to the peaceful occupations of rural life, content with the honour of having been instrumental in achieving the independence, and securing the happiness of his country.

There is no parallel in history to this! By the side of Washington, Alexander is degraded to a selfish destroyer of his race; Cæsar becomes the dazzled votary of power; and Bonaparte, a baffled aspirant to universal dominion.

Washington has been the theme of eulogy in every nation. "His military successes," it has been well said, "were more solid than brilliant, and judgment, rather than enthusiasm, regulated his conduct in battle. In the midst of the inevitable disorder of camps, and the excesses inseparable from civil war, humanity always found a refuge in his tent. In the morning of triumph, and in the darkness of adversity, he was alike serene; at all times tranquil as wisdom, and simple as virtue. After the acknowledgment of American Independence, when the unanimous suffrages of a free people called him to administer their government, his administration, partaking of his character, was mild and firm at home; noble and prudent abroad.*

* Inchiquin's Letters.

UNITED STATES.

Period VIII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Adams, 1797, to the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as president of the United States, 1801.

Section I. On the 4th of March, 1797, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, of the officers of the general and state governments, and a numerous concourse of spectators, took the oath of office, as president of the United States.

The condition of the country, at the close of Washington's administration, and the commencement of Mr. Adams', was greatly improved from that of 1789, the period at which the former entered upon his office.

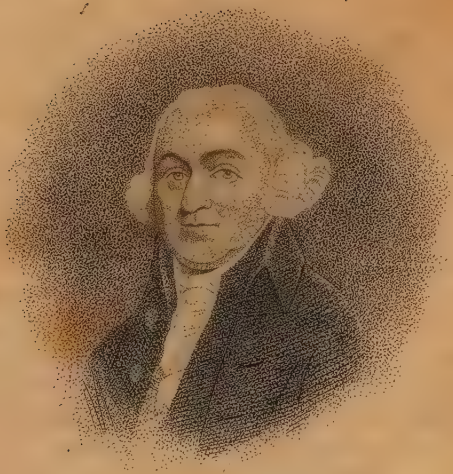
At home, a sound credit had been established; an immense floating debt had been funded in a manner perfectly satisfactory to the creditors, and an ample revenue had been provided. Those difficulties, which a system of internal taxation, on its first introduction, is doomed to encounter, were completely removed; and the authority of the government was firmly established.

Funds for the gradual payment of the debt had been provided; a considerable part of it had actually been discharged; and that system which is now operating its entire extinction, had been matured and adopted. The agricultural and commercial wealth of the nation had increased beyond all former example. The numerous tribes of Indians, on the west, had been taught by arms and by justice, to respect the United States and to continue in peace.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES



JOHN ADAMS

INAUGURATED PRESIDENT

1797

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

Abroad, the differences with Spain had been accommodated. The free navigation of the Mississippi had been acquired, with the use of New-Orleans, as a place of deposit for three years, and afterwards, until some equivalent place should be designated.

Those causes of mutual exasperation, which had threatened to involve the United States in a war with the greatest maritime and commercial power in the world, had been removed; and the military posts which had been occupied within their territory, from their existence as a nation, had been evacuated. Treaties had been formed with Algiers and Tripoli, and no captures appear to have been made by Tunis; so that the Mediterranean was opened to American vessels.

This bright prospect was, indeed, in part, shaded by the discontents of France. But the causes of these discontents, it had been impossible to avoid, without surrendering the right of self-government. Such was the situation of the United States at the close of Washington's, and the commencement of Adams' administration.

Section II. Just before Washington retired from office, learning that France meditated hostilities against the United States, by way of depredations on her West India commerce, he had recalled Mr. Monroe, then minister to that court, and despatched Gen. C. C. Pinckney, minister plenipotentiary, to adjust existing differences.

Immediately upon succeeding to the presidency, Mr. Adams received intelligence that the French republick had announced to Gen. Pinckney its determination "not to receive another minister from the United States until after the redress of grievances," &c.

On the receipt of this intelligence, the president issued his proclamation to convene congress on the 15th of June. In his speech on that occasion, having stated the indignity offered the United States by France, in refusing to receive her minister, the president, in the tone of a high-minded and independent American, urged congress "to repel this indignity of the

French government, by a course which shall convince that government and the world that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and a sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign influence, and regardless of national honour, character and interest."

Notwithstanding this language, the president still retained a desire for peace. Upon his recommendation, three envoys extraordinary, C. C. Pinckney, Elbridge Gerry, and John Marshall, were appointed to the French republick, to carry into effect the pacifick dispositions of the United States.

Section III. For a considerable time, no certain intelligence reached the country respecting the negotiations at Paris. At length, in the winter of 1798, letters were received from the American envoys, indicating an unfavourable state of things; and in the spring despatches arrived, which announced the total failure of the mission.

Before the French government would acknowledge the envoys, money, by way of *tribute*, was demanded in explicit terms of the United States. This being refused, an attempt was next made to excite the fears of the American ministers for their country and themselves. The immense power of France was painted in glowing colours, the humiliation of the house of Austria was stated, and the conquest of Britain was confidently anticipated. In the friendship of France alone, they were told, could America look for safety.

During these transactions, occasion was repeatedly taken to insult the American government; open war was continued to be urged by the cruisers of France on American commerce; and the flag of the United States was a sufficient justification for the capture and condemnation of any vessel, over which it waved.

Section IV. Perceiving further negotiations to be in vain, congress now proceeded to the

adoption of vigorous measures for retaliating injuries which had been sustained, and for repelling still greater injuries which were threatened. Amongst these measures was the augmentation of the regular army.

A regiment of artillerists and engineers was added to the permanent establishment, and the president was authorized to raise twelve additional regiments of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry. He was also authorized to appoint officers for a provisional army, and to receive and organize volunteer corps.

By the unanimous consent of the senate, Gen. Washington was appointed lieutenant-general and commander in chief of all the armies raised, or to be raised, in the United States.

Section V. While preparations were thus making for war, indirect pacifick overtures were communicated by the French government to the president, and a willingness expressed to accommodate existing differences on reasonable terms.

Solicitous to restore that harmony and good understanding, which had formerly existed between the two countries, the president listened to these overtures, and appointed three envoys, Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the United States, Patrick Henry, then late governour of Virginia, and William Vans Murray, minister at the Hague, to discuss and settle, by treaty, all controversies between the United States and France.

On the arrival of these envoys at Paris, they found the government in the hands of Bonaparte, who had not been concerned in the transactions which had disturbed the peace of the two countries. Negotiations were commenced, which terminated in a treaty of peace, September 30th,

1800, soon after which, the provisional army in America was, by order of congress, disbanded.

Section VI. On the 14th of December, 1799, Gen. Washington expired at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, leaving a nation to mourn his loss, and to embalm his memory with their tears.

The disease, of which Gen. Washington died, was an inflammatory affection of the windpipe, occasioned by an exposure to a light rain, while attending, the day before, to some improvements on his estate.

The disease at its commencement was violent, and medical skill was applied in vain. Respiration became more and more contracted and imperfect, until half past eleven o'clock on Saturday night, when retaining the full possession of his intellect he expired without a groan.

Believing at the commencement of his complaint, that its conclusion would be mortal, he economized his time in arranging with the utmost serenity, those few concerns which required his attention. To his physician, he expressed his conviction that he was dying; "but," said he, "*I am not afraid to die.*"

On Wednesday, the 18th of December, his body was deposited in the family vault, attended with military honours, and suitable religious services.

On the arrival of the news of his death at Philadelphia, Monday, congress immediately adjourned. On the day succeeding resolutions were adopted expressive of the grief of the members and a committee was appointed to devise a mode by which the national feelings should be expressed.

On the melancholy occasion, the senate addressed to the president, a letter, in which they say; "Permit us, sir, to mingle our tears with yours. On this occasion it is manly to weep. To lose such a man, at such a crisis, is no common calamity to the world. Our country mourns a father. The Almighty disposer of events has taken from us our greatest benefactor and ornament. It becomes us to submit with reverence to HIM who maketh darkness his pavilion.

"With patriotick pride we review the life of Washington, and compare him with those of other countries who have been pre-eminent in favour. Ancient and modern names are diminished before him. Greatness and guilt have too often been allied; but *his* fame is whiter than it is brilliant. The destroyers of nations stood abashed at the majesty of *his* virtues. It repro-

ed the intemperance of their ambition, and darkened the splendour of victory.

"The scene is closed; and we are no longer anxious lest misfortune should sully his glory. He has travelled on to the end of his journey, and carried with him an increasing weight of honour. He has deposited it safely where misfortune cannot tarnish it; where malice cannot blast it. Favoured of heaven, he departed without exhibiting the weakness of humanity; magnanimous in death, the darkness of the grave could not obscure his brightness."

The committee, appointed to devise some mode by which to express the national feelings, recommended that a marble monument be erected by the United States, at the city of Washington, to commemorate the great events of Washington's military and political life; that a funeral oration be delivered by a member of congress; that the president be requested to write a letter of condolence to Mrs. Washington; and that it be recommended to the citizens of the United States, to wear crape on the left arm for thirty days.

These resolutions passed both houses unanimously. The whole nation appeared in mourning. The funeral procession at the city of Washington was grand and solemn, and the eloquent oration, delivered on the occasion by Gen. Henry Lee, was heard with profound attention, and with deep interest.

Throughout the United States, similar marks of affliction were exhibited. Funeral orations were delivered, and the best talents devoted to an expression of grief, at the loss of "the man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens."

Section VII. In 1800, agreeably to a resolution passed in congress in 1790, the seat of government was transferred from Philadelphia to the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia.

The *District of Columbia* is a territory of ten miles square. It is about three hundred miles from the sea, at the head of tide water on the Potomac, which runs through it diagonally, near the centre. It was ceded, in 1790, to the United States, by Maryland and Virginia, and it is under the immediate government of congress.

Section VIII. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Adams' term of office as president would expire. Before the arrival of the time for a

new election, it had been pretty certainly predicted that he could not be re-elected. His administration, through the whole course of it, had been the subject of much popular clamour, especially by the democratick party. But the measures which most excited the opposition of that party, and which were most successfully employed to destroy the popularity of Mr. Adams' administration, and to place the government in other hands, were several laws passed during his presidency, among which were the "*Alien*" and "*Sedition*" laws.

By the "*alien law*," the president was authorized to order any alien, whom "he should judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, &c. to depart out of the territory within such time" as he should judge proper, upon penalty of being "imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years," &c.

The design of the "*sedition law*" so called, was to punish the abuse of speech, and of the press. It imposed a heavy pecuniary fine, and imprisonment for a term of years, upon such as should combine or conspire together to oppose any measure of government; upon such as should write, print, utter, publish, &c. "any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States, or either house of the congress of the United States, or the president, &c."

These acts, together with others for raising a standing army, and imposing a direct tax and internal duties, with other causes, so increased the opposition to Mr. Adams' administration, as to prevent his re-election, and greatly to weaken the strength of that party to whom he owed his elevation to the presidency.

Section IX. The strife of parties, during the term of electioneering, was spirited. On canvassing the votes of the electors for president, it was found that Mr. Jefferson, and Mr. Burr had each seventy-three votes, Mr. Adams sixty-five, and C. C. Pinckney sixty four. As the constitution provided that the person having the

greatest number of votes should be president, and Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having an equal number, it became the duty of the house of representatives, voting by States, to decide between these two Gentlemen.

The ballot was taken for several days in succession, February, 1801, before a choice was made. The federalists generally supported Mr. Burr; the democratick party Mr. Jefferson. At length, after much political heat and party animosity, the choice fell upon the latter, who was declared to be elected president of the United States for four years, commencing March 4th, 1801. Mr. Burr was elected vice-president.

Notes.

Section X. **Manners.** The manners of the people of the United States underwent no marked change during this period.

Section XI. **Religion.** Although infidelity does not seem to have made much progress in the United States, during this period, it was evident that it had taken deep root in many minds.

Infidels, however, were less confident, and less ready to avow their sentiments. They stood abashed before the world, at the fearful and blood-chilling horrours which their principles had poured out upon France. Their doctrines were, at the same time, powerfully refuted by the ablest men both in England and America. At length, they ceased to make proselytes, spoke favourably of the Christian religion, generally admitted that it was absolutely necessary to good government; and errour, with regard to religion, assumed a new form.

Towards the close of this period, a revival of religion commenced in New-England, and seems to have been the beginning of that series of revivals which have since overspread the United States. Some sects which had before regarded "revivals of re-

ligion" with suspicion or aversion, became convinced of their utility and began to promote them.

Section XII. **Trade and Commerce.** Trade and commerce were still prosperous, and the remarks made in respect to them, under period VII. apply to them during this period.

The exports, in 1801, were ninety-three millions, twenty thousand five hundred and seventy-three dollars, the imports, one hundred and eleven millions, three hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and eleven dollars.

Section XIII. **Agriculture.** Agriculture still continued to flourish.

Section XIV. **Arts and Manufactures.** The general remarks on the preceding period, relative to this subject, apply, without material alteration to this period.

Section XV. **Population.** The number of inhabitants, at the close of this period, was not far from five millions, five hundred thousand.

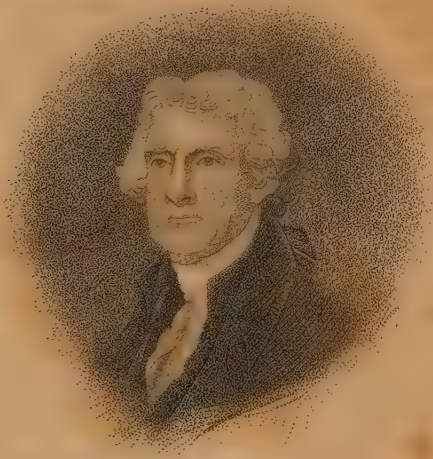
Section XVI. **Education.** We have nothing particular to observe in relation to education. Publick and private schools, however, were multiplied as the people increased, and as new settlements were made.

In 1798, a college was founded at Lexington, Kentucky, called the Transylvania University. Middlebury college, in Vermont, was founded in 1800. At the commencement of the 18th century, there was, in New-England but one college completely founded, but now there were six; in the colonies south of Connecticut, there was only one, but now there were fifteen or sixteen.

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES



THOMAS JEFFERSON

INAUGURATED PRESIDENT

1801

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

UNITED STATES.

Period XX.

DISTINGUISHED FOR JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Jefferson, 1801, *to the inauguration of James Madison as president of the United States, in* 1809.

Section I. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson agreeably to the constitution, was regularly inducted into the office of president of the United States.

At the time of his inauguration, Mr. Jefferson delivered an address, expressive of his political opinions, and the principles by which he designed to shape his administration. These were "Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious, or political; peace, commerce, and honest friendship, with all nations, entangling alliances with none:—the support of the State governments in all their rights, as the most competent administrations for our domestick concerns, and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies:—the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigour, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home, and safety abroad:—a jealous care of the right of election by the people, a mild and safe corrective of abuses which are lopped by the sword of revolution where peaceable remedies are unprovided:—absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republicks, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of depotisms:—a well disciplined militia, our best reliance in peace, and for the first moments of war, till regulars may relieve them:—the supremacy of the civil over the military authority:—economy in the publick expense, that labour may be lightly burthened:—the honest payment of our debts, and sacred preservation of the publick faith:—encouragement of agriculture and of commerce as its hand-maid:—the diffusion of information and arraignment

of all abuses at the bar of publick reason :—freedom of religion —freedom of the press :—and freedom of person, under the protection of the Habeas Corpus ,—and trial by juries impartially selected."—"These principles," added Mr. Jefferson, "should be the creed of our political faith; and should we wander from them in moments of errour or of alarm, let us hasten to retrace our steps, and to regain the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and safety."

Section II. The commencement of Mr. Jefferson's administration was marked by a removal, from responsible and lucrative offices, of a great portion of those whose political opinions were opposed to his own, on the ground that most of the offices at the disposal of the government, had been exclusively bestowed on the adherents of the opposite party.

In a reply to a remonstrance of merchants of New-Haven against the removal from office of a federal collector of that port, and the appointment of a gentleman of opposite politicks, the president formally assigned this as the reason of the course he adopted.

"It would have been to me," said he in that reply, "a circumstance of great relief, had I found a moderate participation of office in the hands of the majority, (the democratick party.) I would gladly have left to time and accident to raise them to their just share. But their *total* exclusion calls for prompter correctives. I shall correct the procedure; but that done, return with joy to that state of things, when the only question concerning a candidate shall be, Is he honest? Is he capable? Is he faithful to the constitution?"

Section III. Congress met on the 8th of December. In his speech at the opening of the session, the president recommended the abolition of the internal taxes—the repeal of the act passed towards the close of Mr. Adams' administration, reorganizing the United States courts, and erecting sixteen new judges—and an enlargement of the rights of naturalization. The debates on these several topicks in both houses of congress were extended to great length, and displayed much eloquence, argu-

ment, and warmth. The recommendation of the president, notwithstanding the opposition, prevailed, and bills in accordance therewith were passed.

The internal taxes, from the time of their establishment, had been extremely unpopular, with the party, which had elevated Mr. Jefferson to the presidency. It was a favourite measure, therefore, of his, to procure their abolition.

The national judicial establishment originally consisted of a supreme court, with six judges, who twice a year made a tour of the United States in three circuits. Under this arrangement, great inconveniences were experienced by the court, the bar, and the suitors. The new arrangement in the judicial system, and the increase of judges at the close of Mr. Adams' term, had excited, in a large portion of the citizens, the hope of a more prompt and impartial administration of justice. To that portion of the community the repealing act was a painful disappointment.

Section IV. In 1802, OHIO was admitted by act of congress, as an independent state into the Union.

The state of Ohio derived its name from the river Ohio, which sweeps the southeastern border of the state.

Until 1787, it was inhabited only by Indians, a few Moravians, and trespassers on lands belonging to the publick. By virtue of her charter, the territory was claimed by Virginia, and held by her, although the original charter of Connecticut, extending west to the Pacific Ocean, included a great part of it.

In 1781, the legislature of Virginia ceded to the United States all her rights to the territory northwest of the river Ohio, excepting some few military tracts. In 1788, the first settlement was begun at Marietta, under General Rufus Putnam, from New-England. It had been, the year before, erected into one district, including the present territories of Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana.

Until 1795, the settlement of Ohio was retarded by constant wars with the Indians. But at that time, a general peace with the different tribes, being effected by General Wayne, under Washington, the population of the territory rapidly increased by emigrations from Europe, and still more from New-England.

Section V. The year 1804 was distinguished for an event, which filled a considerable portion of the American people with great grief.

This was the death of Gen. Hamilton, who fe in a duel with Col. Burr, the vice-president c the United States.

Section VI. Mr. Jefferson's first term of o fice ending this year, a new election took plac at which he was re-chosen president, and on th 4th of March again took the oath of office George Clinton of New-York, was elected vice president.

Section VII. During the year which com menced the second of Mr. Jefferson's presidency a war, which had been continued for severa years between the United States and Tripoli was concluded, and a treaty of peace negotiate by Col. Lear, between the two countries, b which the Tripolitan and American prisoner were exchanged, and the sum of sixty thousan dollars given to the pacha.

The history of this war deserves a place in these pages. T commerce of the United States had been long annoyed by t Tripolitan cruisers—many merchantmen had been taken, a their crews imprisoned and cruelly treated.

As early as 1803, a squadron under Com. Preble had be sent to the Mediterranean, to protect the American commerc and to bring the corsairs to submission. During the same ye Capt. Bainbridge, in the Philadelphia, joined Com. Preble, a in chasing a cruiser into the harbour of Tripoli, grounded l vessel, and he and his crew were taken prisoners.

Shortly after the surrender of the Philadelphia, the Tripo tans got her afloat, and warped her into the outward harbo In this situation, Lieutenant, afterwards Commodore, Decat conceived the bold plan of attempting to set her on fire. had the day before captured a small xebec, laden with fr and oil, which was bound to Tripoli; and having on board Enterprize, which he commanded, an old pilot, who understo the Tripolitan language, he suggested his plan to Commod Preble, who approved of it. He would accept of only twe men, although a much greater number volunteered, and but officer, Mr. Morris, a midshipman. With these men, conce in the bottom of the xebec, on the approach of night, he sai for the Philadelphia, taking with him the old pilot. On

proaching the frigate, the xebec was hailed, when the pilot answered that he had lost his cable and anchor, and begged permission to make fast to the frigate, until the morning. This, the crew refused, but said he might make fast to their stern hawser, until they sent a boat to the admiral for leave.

As the boat put off for the shore, Lieutenant Decatur, with his brave companions, leaped on board the frigate, and in a few minutes swept the deck of every Tripolitan. Of fifty, not one reached the shore. The frigate was now set on fire, and while the flames rose, to spread consternation among the Tripolitans, they served to lighten the way for the heroick Decatur and his band to go back in safety to the American squadron. Of the party, not one was killed, and but one wounded. This was a seaman who saved the life of his commander. In the first desperate struggle on board the Philadelphia, Decatur was disarmed, and fell. A sabre was already lifted to strike the fatal blow, when this seaman, observing the perilous situation of his officer, reached forward, and received the blow of the sabre on his arm.

In consequence of the burning of the Philadelphia, the sufferings of Commodore Bainbridge and his crew, as well as those of other Americans in captivity at Tripoli, were greatly increased. The accounts of their sufferings, transmitted to the United States, excited the sympathy of all classes, and a general cry for exertions to effect their deliverance was heard from all parts of the union.

It happened that some time before this, the then reigning bashaw of Tripoli, Jussuf, third son of the late bashaw, had murdered his father and eldest brother, and proposed to murder the second, in order to possess himself of the throne. But the latter, Hamet Caramelli, made his escape, and Jussuf, without further opposition, usurped the government.

Hamet took refuge in Egypt, where he was kindly treated by the beys. Here he was, on the arrival of an accredited agent of the United States, General Eaton, who revived his almost expiring hopes of regaining his rightful kingdom.

General Eaton had been consul for the United States up the Mediterranean, and was returning home when he heard of the situation of Hamet. Conceiving a plan of liberating the Americans in captivity at Tripoli, by means of the assistance of Hamet, and, at the same time, of restoring this exile to his throne, he advised with Hamet, who readily listened to the project, and gave his co-operation.

A convention was accordingly entered into between General Eaton on the part of the United States, and Hamet, by which the latter stipulated much in favour of the Americans, and was promised to be restored to his throne.

With a small force, consisting of seamen from the America squadron, the followers of Hamet, and some Egyptian troop Gen. Eaton and Hamet, with incredible toil and suffering, pas ed the desert of Barca, and took possession of Derne, the capit of a large province belonging to the kingdom of Tripoli. Th forces of Eaton were now so much increased, and the cause Hamet had become so popular, that the prospect was flatterin of his being able to reduce the city of Tripoli, and of effectin the liberation of the captives without ransom.

The successes of Eaton struck the usurper Jussuf with terrou Trembling for his fate in this juncture, he proposed to M Lear, the consul-general of America, then in the Mediterranea to enter into negotiation. Mr. Lear, who was authorized to en ter into negotiation, accepted the proposal, although he knew the success of Eaton and Hamet, and a treaty ensued. Eato and Hamet were consequently arrested in the prosecution their purpose, and the unfortunate exile failed of his promise restoration to the throne.

In 1805, Hamet visited the United States with the expectatio of obtaining some remuneration for his services, from Americ and for her failure in fulfilling her stipulations to him by Ge Eaton. A proposition to this effect was brought before co gress, but after much discussion was rejected.

Section VIII. During this year, 1805, MICHIGAN became a distinct territorial government of the United States.

The Michigan territory, when first discovered by the white was inhabited by the *Hurons*, a tribe of Indians, many of who were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit Missionaries 1648. About the year 1670, the Hurons were defeated an dispersed by the Six Nations, about which time, the French too possession of the territory, and built a fort at Detroit, and an ther at Michillimackinac. Little, however, was done by th French to settle the country.

At the peace of 1763, the territory was ceded by the Fren to Great Britain, and by the latter to the United States in 178 Until 1787, it remained in the same state of nature, without g vernment, or any considerable settlements; but at this time, t several states who had claims upon it, ceded them to the Unit States, and a territorial government was instituted over all t territory, northwest of the Ohio.

This territory remained under one government until 180 when the present state of Ohio was detached, and made a d tinct government. This was followed, in 1801, by a furth separation of Indiana and Illinois; and, in 1805, Michigan w

also detached, and was erected into a distinct territorial government. Gen. Hull was appointed by Mr. Jefferson the first governour.

Section IX. In the autumn of 1806, a project was detected, at the head of which was Col. Burr, for revolutionizing the territory west of the Alleghanies, and of establishing an independent empire there, of which New-Orleans was to be the capital, and himself the chief. Towards the accomplishment of this scheme, which it afterwards appeared had been some time in contemplation, the skilful cunning and intrigue of Col. Burr were directed. Happily, however, government, being apprised of his designs, arrested him, while as yet he had few adherents, and before his standard was raised. He was brought to trial at Richmond on a charge of treason committed within the district of Virginia; but no overt act being proved against him in that State, he was released.

In addition to this project, Col. Burr had formed another, which, in case of failure in the first, might be carried on independently of it:—this was an attack on Mexico, and the establishment of an empire there. "A third object was provided, merely ostensible, to wit, the settlement of the pretended purchase of a tract of country on the Washita, claimed by a Baron Bastrop. This was to serve as a pretext for all his preparations, an allurement for such followers as really wished to acquire settlements in that country, and a cover under which to retreat in the event of a final discomfiture of both branches of his real designs."

"He found at once that the attachment of the western country to the present union was not to be shaken; that its dissolution could not be effected with the consent of the inhabitants; and that his resources were inadequate, as yet, to effect it by force. He determined, therefore, to seize New-Orleans, plunder the bank there, possess himself of the military and naval stores, and proceed on his expedition to Mexico."

"He collected, therefore, from all quarters, where himself or his agents possessed influence, all the ardent, restless, desperate, disaffected persons who were for an enterprise analagous to their

characters. He also seduced good, well-meaning citizens, some by assurances that he possessed the confidence of the government and was acting under its secret patronage; and others by offers of land in Bastrop's claim in the Washita."*

Section X. 1806. To understand the subsequent political history of the United States and those measures of government which were taken in relation to foreign powers, it is necessary to glance at the state of the European nations, at this period—particularly that of England and France. These two countries were now at war with each other, and in their controversies had involved most of the continental powers. Towards the belligerents, America was endeavouring to maintain a neutrality, and peaceably to continue a commerce with them. It was hardly to be expected, however, that jealousies would not arise between the contending powers in relation to the conduct of America, and that events would not occur, calculated to injure her commerce, and disturb her peace.

In addition to these circumstances, a controversy had long existed, and continued to exist, between the United States and Great Britain, in respect to the right of searching neutral ships, and impressing seamen. Great Britain claimed it as among her prerogatives to take her native born subjects, wherever found, for her navy, and of searching American vessels for that purpose. As yet no adjustment of this controversy had been effected. Notwithstanding the remonstrances of the American government, the officers of the British navy not unfrequently seized native born British subjects, who had voluntarily enlisted on board our vessels. They also im-

* President's Message to Congress, July 21, 1807.

pressed into the British service some thousands of American seamen.

Section XI. May 16th, 1806, the British government issued an order in council, declaring the ports and rivers from the Elbe, a river in Germany, to Brest, a town of France, to be in a state of blockade. By this order, American vessels, trading to these and intervening ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation.

Section XII. In the ensuing November, 1806, Bonaparte issued his celebrated decree at Berlin, called the "*Berlin decree*," by which all the British Islands were declared to be in a state of blockade, and all intercourse with them was prohibited. This decree violated the treaty between the United States and France, and the law of nations.

The following are the principal articles of that decree, which related to the obstruction of American commerce:

1. The British Islands are in a state of blockade.

2. All commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited.

3. No vessel coming directly from England, or her colonies, or having been there since the publication of this decree, shall be admitted into any port.

Section XIII. This decree of Bonaparte at Berlin, was in part retaliated by the British government in an *order of council*, issued January 7th, 1807, by which all coasting trade with France was prohibited.

"Whereas the French government has issued certain orders, which purport to prohibit the commerce of all neutral nations with his majesty's dominions," &c.—"his majesty is pleased to order that no vessel shall be permitted to trade from one port to another, both which ports shall belong to, or be in possession of, France or her allies, or shall be so far under their controul as that British vessels may not freely trade thereat," &c. on pain of capture and condemnation.

Section XIV. While measures were thus taking by France and England, whose tendency

was to injure American commerce, and to involve her in a controversy with both, an event occurred which filled the American people with indignation, and called for immediate executive notice. This was an attack upon the American frigate Chesapeake, Commodore Barron, off the capes of Virginia, by the British frigate Leopard of fifty guns. The attack was occasioned by the refusal of Commodore Barron to surrender several seamen, who had deserted from the British armed ship Melampus, a short time previous, and had voluntarily enlisted on board the Chesapeake. After crippling the American frigate, which made no resistance, the commander of the Leopard took from her the seamen in question, two of whom had been proved to be American citizens.

The persons who deserted from the Melampus, then lying in Hampton roads, were William Ware, Daniel Martin, John Strachan, John Little, and Ambrose Watts. Within a month from their escape from the Melampus, the first three of these deserters offered themselves for enlistment, and were received on board the Chesapeake, then at Norfolk, Virginia, preparing for sea.

The British consul at Norfolk, being apprized of this circumstance, wrote a letter to the American naval officer requesting these men to be returned. With this request the officer refusing to comply, the British agent lost no time in endeavouring to procure an order from government for their surrender. In consequence of this application, the secretary of the navy ordered an examination into the characters and claims of the men in question. The required examination resulted in proof that Ware, Martin, and Strachan, were natives of America. The two former had *protections*, or notarial certificates of their being American citizens. Strachan had no *protection*, but asserted that he lost it previously to his escape. Such being the circumstances of the men, the government refused to surrender them.

On the 22d of June, the Chesapeake weighed anchor and proceeded to sea. She passed the British ships Bellona and Melampus, lying in Lynnhaven bay, whose appearance was friendly. There were two other ships that lay off Cape Henry

one of which, the Leopard, Captain Humphreys, weighed anchor, and in a few hours came along side the Chesapeake.

A British officer immediately came on board, and demanded the deserters. To this, Capt. Barron replied, that he did not know of any being there, and that his duty forbade him to allow of any muster of his crew, except by their own officers.

During this interview, Barron noticed some proceedings of a hostile nature on board the adverse ship, but he could not be persuaded that any thing but menace was intended by them. After the British officer departed, he gave orders to clear his gun deck, and after some time, he directed his men to their quarters, secretly, and without beat of drum: still, however, without any serious apprehensions of an attack.

Before these orders could be executed, the Leopard commenced a heavy fire. This fire unfortunately was very destructive. In about thirty minutes, the hull, rigging, and spars of the Chesapeake were greatly damaged, three men were killed and sixteen wounded; among the latter was the captain himself. Such was the previous disorder, that during this time, the utmost exertions were insufficient to prepare the ship for action, and the captain thought proper to strike his colours.

The British captain refused to accept the surrender of the Chesapeake, but took from her crew, Ware, Martin, and Strachan, the three men formerly demanded as deserters, and a fourth, John Wilson, claimed as a runaway from a merchant ship.

Section XV. Such was the agitation of the publick mind, in consequence of this outrage committed on the Chesapeake, that the president conceived himself required to notice the transaction, and by some decisive publick act, to show how deeply America conceived herself to be wounded. Accordingly, on the 2d of July, the president issued his proclamation, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding them to enter, until satisfaction for the attack on the Chesapeake should be made by the British government.

Mr. Munroe was at this time the minister of the United States, at the court of St. James. Early in September, he received the instructions

of the American government, pertaining to th attack on the Chesapeake, and was required t demand reparation for that attack, and, as a essential part of that reparation, securit against future impressments from America ships. The British minister, Mr. Canning however, protested against conjoining the *gene ral question* concerning the impressment o persons from neutral merchant ships, with th *particular affray* between the Leopard and th Chesapeake.

As Mr. Monroe was not authorized to trea these subjects separately, further negotiatio between these two ministers was suspended and Mr. Rose was appointed, by the Britis government, as a special minister to the Unite States, empowered to treat concerning the *par ticular* injury complained of, but not to discus the *general* question of impressing persons fro merchant ships.

Section XVI. While such measures wer taking in England, in relation to the affair o the Chesapeake, congress, which had been sum moned before the regular time, by proclamatio of the president, met on the 27th of October.

In his message to congress at this time, the president entere fully into the state of our relations with Great Britain—informe them of a treaty which had been negotiated with the British g vernment, by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney—but which h had rejected, principally because it made no sufficient provisio on the subject of impressments—stated the affair of the attac on the Chesapeake—his proclamation to British armed vesse to quit the waters of the United States—his instructions to th American minister at London, in relation to reparation expecte from the British government, and his expectation of speedily hea ing from England the result of the measures which had been taker

Section XVII. On the 11th of Novembe were issued at London, the celebrated *Britis Orders in Council*, retaliatory upon the Frenc

government for the Berlin decree of November, 1806. By these orders in council, France and her allies; all nations at war with Great Britain, and all places from which the British flag is excluded, were declared to be under the same restrictions in point of trade and navigation, as if the same were in a state of blockade.

Section XVIII. Before the arrival of Mr. Rose, congress was sedulously employed in considering the state of the nation, and in making provision for putting the country in a posture of defence. Acts passed, appropriating one million of dollars to be employed by the president in equipping one hundred thousand of the national militia; eight hundred and fifty-two thousand five hundred dollars, for building one hundred and eighty-eight gun-boats; one million of dollars, for building, repairing, and completing fortifications, and for raising six thousand six hundred men, infantry, riflemen, artillery, and dragoons, as an addition to the standing army. On the 22d of December, an act passed, laying an *embargo* on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Section XIX. On the 17th of December, Bonaparte, by way of retaliating the British orders in council, issued a decree, called "*the Milan decree*," declaring every vessel denationalized which shall have submitted to a search by a British ship; and every vessel a good prize, which shall sail to or from Great Britain, or any of its colonies, or countries, occupied by British troops.

Section XX. Mr. Rose arrived in America on the 25th of December. The American minister was soon after informed, that he, Mr. Rose,

was expressly forbidden by his government
make any proposal, touching the great subje
of complaint, so long as the president's procl
mation of July 2d, excluding British armed ve
sels from the waters of the United State
should be in force.

For a time, the president refused to annul th
proclamation till the atonement was not on
solemnly offered, but formally accepted; but
order to elude this difficulty, he finally agreed
revoke his proclamation, on the day of the da
of the act, or treaty, by which reparation shou
be made for the recent violence. This conce
sion, however, was built on two conditions; firs
the terms of reparation which the minister w
charged to offer, must be previously mad
known; and, secondly, they must be such as
the president should be accounted satisfactor

But as the British minister declined to offe
or even to mention, the redress of which he w
the bearer, till the American proclamation w
recalled, and the president deeming its recs
inexpedient, the controversy, for the presen
closed.

The controversy respecting the Chesapeake was finally a
justed in November, 1811, at which time the British minis
communicated to the secretary of state, that the attack on t
Chesapeake was unauthorized by his majesty's government
that the officer at that time in command on the American co
had been recalled—that the men taken from the Chesapea
should be restored—and that suitable pecuniary provision sho
be made for those who suffered in the attack, and for the fa
lies of the seamen that fell. To these propositions the pre
dent acceded.

Section XXI. The difficulties with Fran
and England, regarding commerce, still con
nuing, and the existing embargo having failed
coerce these powers as was anticipated, into

acknowledgment of our rights—a more complete stop to our intercourse with them was deemed advisable by congress. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, congress interdicted, by law, all trade and intercourse with France and England.

Section XXII. Mr. Jefferson's second term of office expired on the 3d of March. Having previously declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen president, and George Clinton vice-president.

Notes.

Section XXIII. **Manners.** The bitterness of party spirit which had now raged in the United States for some years, began to have a visible effect upon society. It interrupted, to no small extent, the general harmony, and even restrained the intercourse of friends and neighbourhoods. The strife for power, also introduced a disposition to intrigue; political cunning became fashionable, and political duplicity lost much of its deformity. These things necessarily affected the state of manners. They withdrew the finger of derision, which used to point at meanness of all kinds, and blunted that love of honour, and manliness of conduct, which existed before. Cunning began to take the place of wisdom; professions answered instead of deeds; and duplicity stalked forth with the boldness of integrity.

Section XXIV. **Religion.** Powerful revivals of religion pervaded the country during this period, and tended strongly to prevent open in-

fidelity, and to check the tide of pollution which was invisibly spread over the land.

Section XXV. **Trade and Commerce.** Trade and commerce made great advance about the year 1803. The European powers being involved in war, and the United States remaining neutral, our vessels carried to Europe not only the produce of our own country, but also the produce of other countries. This is usually called the *carrying trade*, and was very profitable to the country.

In 1805, 6, and 7, our average annual exports amounted to one hundred and two millions, five hundred and sixty-seven thousand, four hundred and fifty-four dollars, of which forty-four millions, eight hundred and sixty-three thousand, five hundred and seventeen dollars, were for domestick produce, and fifty-seven millions, seven hundred and one thousand, nine hundred and thirty-seven dollars, for foreign produce. The annual average of imports during these three years, amounted to about one hundred and forty millions of dollars; a large proportion of the articles, forming this amount, were re-exported to the West Indies, South America, and elsewhere.

After the year 1807, the commercial restrictions laid by France and England, began to curtail our trade, and the embargo, imposed at the close of the same year, by our own government, interrupted it still more esentially.

Section XXVI. **Agriculture.** Agriculture during a part of this period, received great encouragement from our foreign trade. Europe being involved in contentions, the people had little leisure there to cultivate the soil; they were therefore supplied from other countries, and the United States furnished them with great amount, and were thence deriving great profits, when the commercial restrictions interrupted the trade.

The first *merino* sheep were introduced into the country, in 1802, by Robert R. Livingston, and the same year, a greater number, one hundred, by Gen. Humphreys, then late minister

o Spain. Great attention was paid to the breeding of them, nd they are now numerous in the United States.

Section XXVII. **Arts and Manufactures.** Arts and manufactures still progressed.

Section XXVIII. **Population.** The population of the United States, at the close of Mr. Jefferson's administration, was about seven millions.

Section XXIX. **Education.** The enlightened views respecting the importance of general information, entertained before, continued to prevail. New literary and scientifick publications were commenced; more enlightened methods of instruction were adopted; academies were multiplied; colleges founded; and theological seminaries liberally endowed.

A theological seminary was founded at Andover, Massachusetts, in 1808. The amount, which has been contributed for its permanent use, and which was given by six families, is more than three hundred thousand dollars. This sum includes the permanent fund, library, and publick buildings. In 1822, the officers were four professors, and the number of students, one hundred and thirty-two. The library contains about five thousand volumes. A majority of the students are supported in whole, or in part, by charity.

UNITED STATES.

Period X.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MADISON'S ADMINISTRATIO AND THE LATE WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN,

Extending from the inauguration of Presider Madison, 1809, *to the inauguration of Jam Monroe, as president of the United State* 1817.

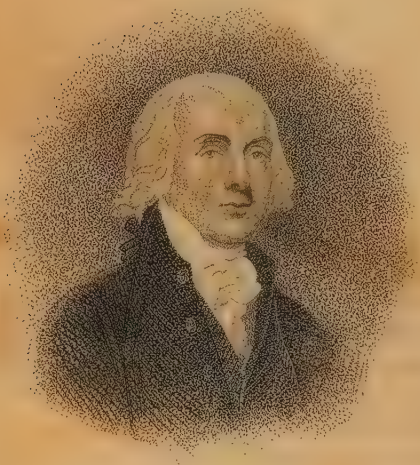
Section I. On the 4th of March, 1809, M Madison was inducted into the office of preside of the United States, according to the form pr scribed by the constitution.

The situation of the United States, on th accession of Mr. Madison to the presidenc was in several respects gloomy and critica The two great powers of Europe, France an England, were still at war, and were continuin to array against each other the most violer commercial edicts, both in contravention of th laws of nations, and of their solemn treaties and calculated to injure and destroy the com merce of nations desirous of preserving a ne trality. America was also further suffering un der the restrictions of commerce, imposed b her own government. Every effort to secu the due observance of her rights, by the co tending powers, had hitherto failed, and the sa alternative was presenting itself to the America people, either to suffer the evils growing out o foreign and domestick restrictions, or to take u

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES



JAMES MADISON

INAUGURATED PRESIDENT

1809

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

arms, and risk the consequence of a war with the belligerents.

Section II. Previously to the adjournment of the last congress, under Mr. Jefferson, an act passed, as already noticed, 1st of March, repealing the then existing embargo, and interdicting commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain. Should either of these powers, however, revoke their edicts, the president was authorized to renew the intercourse.

April 18th, the British minister, Mr. Erskine, informed the secretary of state, Mr. Smith, that his majesty's government, considering the non-intercourse act, passed March 1st, as having produced an *equality* in the relations of the two belligerent powers with respect to the United States, would be willing to rescind the orders in council of January and November, 1807, so far as it respected the United States, provided the president would issue a proclamation for the renewal of intercourse with Great Britain. This proposal was readily accepted. The British minister, in consequence of this acceptance, stated himself authorized to declare that the above orders in council would be withdrawn as it respected the United States, on the succeeding 10th of June. A proclamation by the president soon after followed, renewing the intercourse with Great Britain, from and after that time.

This event produced the highest satisfaction throughout the country; but was speedily followed by a disappointment as great. The British government denied the authority of Mr. Erskine, to enter into any such stipulations, and refused its ratification. On learning this refusal, the president issued his proclamation, August

10th, renewing the non-intercourse with Great Britain.

Section III. Early in September, Mr. Jackson arrived at Washington, as successor of Mr. Erskine. A correspondence was soon commenced between this minister and the secretary of state, which, after continuing several weeks without adjusting any differences between the two countries, was suddenly closed, by the president, on account of an alleged insult on the part of Mr. Jackson.

In the course of correspondence with the secretary, Mr. Jackson had repeatedly asserted that the American executive could not but know from the powers exhibited by Mr. Erskine that in the above stipulations he had transcended those powers and was therefore acting without the authority of his government. This was deemed by the executive equivalent to a declaration, that the American government did know that Mr. Erskine was exceeding his powers. The British minister denied the legitimacy of such an inference—but the executive, regarding his language as reflecting upon the honour and integrity of the American government, closed the correspondence—soon after which, Mr. Jackson was recalled, but without the censure of his government.

Section IV. 1810. On the 23d of March, Bonaparte issued a decree, usually called the "Rambouillet decree," designed to retaliate the act of congress, passed March 1st, 1809, which forbade French vessels entering the ports of the United States. By the above decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized and condemned.

Section V. On the 1st of May, congress passed an act, excluding British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States; but, at the same time, providing, that in case either of the above nations should modify

its edicts before the third of March, 1811, so that they should cease to violate neutral commerce, of which fact the president was to give notice by proclamation, and the other nation should not, within three months after, pursue a similar step, commercial intercourse with the former might be renewed, but not with the latter.

Section VI. In consequence of this act of the American government, the French minister, the Duke of Cadore, at Paris, informed the American minister, Mr. Armstrong, then in France, that the Berlin and Milan decrees were revoked, and that, from and after the 1st of November, they would cease to have effect. But, at the same time, it was subjoined, that it was "understood, that, in consequence of this declaration, the English shall revoke their orders in council, &c." About the same time it was announced that the Rambouillet decree had also been rescinded.

Although the condition subjoined to the Duke of Cadore's declaration rendered it doubtful whether the Berlin and Milan decrees would in *fact* cease to take effect after the 1st of November, the president issued his proclamation on the 2d of that month, declaring that those decrees were revoked, and that intercourse between the United States and France might be renewed.

Section VII. While the affairs of America, in relation to the belligerents, were in this posture, an unhappy engagement took place, May 1811, between the American frigate President, commanded by Capt. Rogers, and a British sloop of war, the Little Belt, commanded by Capt.

Bingham The attack was commenced by the latter vessel, without provocation, and, in the rencontre, suffered greatly in her men and rigging.

A court of inquiry was ordered on the conduct of Captain Rogers, which decided that it had been satisfactorily proved to the court, that Capt. Rogers hailed the Little Belt first—that his hail was not satisfactorily answered—that the Little Belt fired the first gun—and that it was without previous provocation or justifiable cause, &c. &c.

Section VIII. Congress was assembled by proclamation on the 5th of November. In his message at the opening of the session, the president indicated the expectation of hostilities with Great Britain at no distant period, since her orders in council, instead of being withdrawn, were, when least to have been expected, put into more rigorous execution.

"I must now add," continues the president in his message, "that the period has arrived which claims from the legislative guardians of the national rights, a system of more ample provision for maintaining them."—"With" such full "evidence of the hostile inflexibility" of Great Britain, "in trampling on rights which no independent nation can relinquish, congress will feel the duty of putting the United States into an armour and an attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with the national spirit and expectations."

On the 29th, the committee on foreign relations presented their report, in which, adopting the language of the president's message, they strongly recommended, "That the United States be immediately put into an armour and attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with the national spirit and expectations." Bills agreeable to this recommendation passed congress preparatory to a state of hostilities, among which was one for raising twenty-five thousand men.

Section IX. In December, the president com-

nunicated to congress an official account of the attle of "*Tippacanoe*"—near a branch of the Wabash—fought November 7th, between an rmy under Gen. Harrison, governor of the Iniana territory, and a large body of Indians, in vhich the latter were defeated.

The attack was commenced by the Indians about four o'clock the morning, while the army of Harrison were in a measure nprepared. But notwithstanding this disadvantage, after a ard fought action, the Indians were repulsed with a loss of early seventy killed, and upwards of a hundred wounded. he loss of the Americans was severe, being, according to offial return, one hundred and eighty-eight in killed and wounded.

Section X. During the following year, 1812, LOUISIANA was admitted into the union as a sovereign state.

Until the year 1811, Louisiana comprehended that vast tract country which was ceded to the United States by France, in 803. At that time, however, the *Territory of Orleans*, which as then a distinct territorial government, assumed the name of ouisiana, and was admitted the following year as a state into e Union; since which time, the remaining portion of original ouisiana has received distinct denominations.

Louisiana was first discovered in 1541, by Ferdinand de Soto. 1683, Monsieur de la Salle, an enterprising Frenchman, iled up the Mississippi a considerable distance, and named e country Louisiana, in honour of Louis XIV. A French ttlement was begun in 1699, by M. d'Ibberville, in Lower ouisiana, near the mouth of the river Perdido. The progress the colony was slow. In 1712, although twenty-five hundred migrants had arrived, only four hundred whites and twenty neoes were alive.

About this time, the French government made a grant of the ountry to M. de Crozat for a term of ten years; but after ve years he relinquished his patent to the Mississippi company. the same year, 1717, the city of Orleans was founded.

By the treaty of 1763, all Louisiana east of the Mississip, was ceded to England, together with Mobile, and all the ossessions of France in that quarter. About the same time, e possessions of France west of the Mississippi were secretly ded to Spain. After the cession to Great Britain, that part the territory which lay west of the Mississippi received the ame of West Florida. On the breaking out of the revolution-

ary war, Spain, after considerable hesitation, took part with th United States, incited, probably, by the hope of regaining h possessions east of the Mississippi. In 1779, Galvoy, the g vernour of Louisiana, took possession of Baton Rouge; and t other settlements of the English in Florida surrendered succe sively. By the treaty of 1783, the Mississippi was made t western boundary of the United States from its source to t 31st degree of latitude, and following this line to the St. Mary By a treaty of the same date, the Floridas were ceded to Spa without any specifick boundaries. This omission led to a co troversy between the United States and Spain, which near terminated in hostilities. By a treaty with Spain, however, 1795, boundary lines were amicably settled, and New-Orlea was granted to American citizens as a place of deposit for the effects for three years and longer, unless some other place equal importance should be assigned. No other place being a signed within that time, New-Orleans continued to be used before.

In 1800, a secret treaty was signed at Paris, by the plenip tentiaries of France and Spain, by which Louisiana was guara teed to France, and, in 1801, the cession was actually mad At the same time, the Spanish intendant of Louisiana was i structed to make arrangements to deliver the country to t French commissioners. In violation of the treaty of Spain w the United States, the intendant, by his proclamation of Oc ber, 1802, forbade American citizens any longer to depo merchandize in the port of New-Orleans. Upon receiving i telligence of this prohibition, great sensibility prevailed in co gress, and a proposition was made to occupy the place by forc but after an animated discussion the project was relinquishe and negotiations with France were commenced by Mr. Jeff son, for the purchase of the whole country of Louisiana, whi ended in an agreement to that effect, signed at Paris, April 30 1803, by which the United States were to pay to France fifte millions of dollars. Early in December, 1803, the commissio ers of Spain delivered possession to France; and on the 20 of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferr the country to the United States. Congress had provided f this event, and under their act, William C. C. Claiborne w appointed governour. By an act of March, 1804, that part the ceded country which lay south of the parallel of thirty-thr degrees was separated from the rest, and called the *Territo of Orleans*. In 1811, this district was erected into a state, a in 1812, was admitted into the Union by the name of *Lou iana*.

Section XI. On the 3d of April, 1812, congress passed an act laying an *embargo* for ninety days on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States, agreeably to a recommendation of the president. This measure, it was understood, was preparatory to a war with Great Britain, which the executive would soon urge upon congress to declare.

Section XII. On the 4th of June, 1812, a bill declaring war against Great Britain, passed the house of representatives, by a majority of seventy-nine to forty-nine. After a discussion of this bill in the senate till the 17th, it passed that body also, by a majority of nineteen to thirteen, and the succeeding day, 18th,* received the signature of the president.

The principal grounds of war was set forth in a message of the president to congress, June 1st, and was further explained by the committee on foreign relations in their report on the subject

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*The following are the orders in council, French decrees, and the consequent acts of the American government, with their respective dates, presented in one view.

1806, May 16th, British blockade from the Elbe to Brest.
" Nov. 21st, Berlin decree.
1807, Jan. 6th, British order in council prohibiting the coasting trade.
" Nov. 11th, The celebrated British orders in council.
" Dec. 17th, Milan decree.
" Dec. 22d, American embargo.
1809, March 1st, Non-intercourse with Great Britain and France, established by congress.
" April 10th, Mr. Erskine's negotiation, which opened the trade with England.
" June 19th, Non-intercourse with Great Britain.
1810, March 18th, Rambouillet decree.
" May 1st, Act of congress conditionally opening the trade with England and France.
" Nov. 2d, President's proclamation declaring the French decrees to be rescinded.
1812, April 4th, American embargo.
" June 18th, Declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain.

of the message, were summarily—The impress ment of American seamen by the British; th blockade of her enemies' ports, supported b no adequate force, in consequence of which, th American commerce had been plundered i every sea, and the great staples of the countr cut off from their legitimate markets, and th British orders in council.

On these grounds, the president urged the declaration of wa In unison with the recommendation of the president, the com mittee on foreign relations concluded their report as follows:

"Your committee, believing that the freeborn sons of Americ are worthy to enjoy the liberty which their fathers purchased a the price of much blood and treasure, and seeing by the mea sures adopted by Great Britain, a course commenced and per sisted in, which might lead to a loss of national character an independence, feel no hesitation in advising resistance by force in which the Americans of the present day will prove to th enemy, and the world, that we have not only inherited that l berty which our fathers gave us, but also the will and power t maintain it. Relying on the patriotism of the nation, and con fidently trusting that the Lord of Hosts will go with us to battl in a righteous cause, and crown our efforts with success—you committee recommend an immediate appeal to *arms*."

Against this declaration of war, the minority in the house o representatives, among which were found the principal part o the delegation from New-England, in an address to their const tuents, solemnly protested, on the ground that the wrongs o which the United States complained, although in some respect grievous, were not of a nature, in the present state of the world to justify war, or such as war would be likely to remedy. On the subject of impressment, they urged that the question betwee the two countries had once been honourably and satisfactoril settled, in the treaty negotiated with the British court by Messrs Monroe and Pinckney, and although that treaty had not bee ratified by Mr. Jefferson, the arrangements might probably agai be made. In relation to the second cause of war—the blockad of her enemies' ports without an adequate force—the minorit replied that this was not designed to injure the commerce of th United States, but was retaliatory upon France, which had take the lead in aggressions upon neutral rights. In addition, it wa said, that, as the repeal of the French decrees had been official ly announced, it was to be expected that a revocation of the or ders in council would soon follow.

In conclusion of the protest, the minority spoke as follows:

"The undersigned cannot refrain from asking what are the United States to gain by this war? Will the gratification of some privateersmen compensate the nation for that sweep of our legitimate commerce by the extended marine of our enemy, which this desperate act invites? Will Canada compensate the middle States for New-York; or the western States for New-Orleans? Let us not be deceived. A war of invasion may invite a retort of invasion. When we visit the peaceable, and to us innocent colonies of Great Britain with the horrours of war, can we be assured that our own coast will not be visited with like horrours.

"At a crisis of the world, such as the present, and under impressions such as these, the undersigned could not consider the war into which the United States have in secret been precipiated, as necessary, or required by any moral duty, or any political expediency."

As a difference of views respecting the war, which had now been declared, prevailed in congress, so the country generally was divided into two opposite parties respecting it. The friends of the administration universally commending, and its opposers as extensively censuring and condemning the measure. By the former, the war was strenuously urged to be unavoidable and just; by the latter, with equal decision, it was pronounced to be impolitick, unnecessary, and unjust.

Section XIII. The military establishments of the United States, upon the declaration of war, were extremely defective. Acts of congress permitted the enlistment of twenty-five thousand men, but few enlisted. The president was authorized to raise fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia, for the purpose of defending the sea-coast and the frontiers. But the want of proper officers was now felt, as the ablest revolutionary heroes had paid the debt of nature. Such was the situation of things at the commencement of hostilities.

Section XIV. August 16th, Gen. Hull, governour of Michigan, who had been sent at the head of about two thousand five hundred men to Detroit, with a view of putting an end to In-

dian hostilities in that country, surrendered hi army to Gen. Brock, without a battle, and witl it the fort at Detroit.

The sensations produced by this occurrence throughout th United States, and particularly in the western country, ca scarcely be described. So entirely unprepared was the public mind for this extraordinary event, that no one could believe to have taken place until communicated from an official source

In his official despatch, Hull took great pains to free his cor duct from censure. Among the reasons for his surrender, an those which determined him to that course, he assigned the war of provision to sustain the siege, the expected reinforcements c the enemy, and the savage ferocity of the Indians, should he u timately be obliged to capitulate.

The government, however, not being satisfied with his excuse ordered a court martial, before which he was charged with trea son, cowardice, and unofficerlike conduct. On the first charg the court declined giving an opinion: on the two last he wa sentenced to death; but was recommended to mercy in conse quence of his revolutionary services, and his advanced age The sentence was remitted by the president; but his name wa ordered to be struck from the rolls of the army.

Section XV. About the middle of August that series of splendid naval achievements, fo which this war was distinguished, was com menced by Capt. Isaac Hull, of the Unite States' frigate Constitution, who captured th British frigate Guerriere, commanded by Capt Dacres.

The American frigate was superiour in force only by a fe guns, but the difference bore no comparison to the disparity the conflict. The loss of the Constitution was seven kille and seven wounded, while that on board the Guerriere wa fifteen killed, and sixty-three wounded, among the latter wa Capt. Dacres. The Constitution sustained so little injury tha she was ready for action the succeeding day. But the Britis frigate was so much damaged that she was set on fire and burn

Section XVI. Upon the declaration of wa the attention of the American general was turne towards the invasion of Canada, for which eigh or ten thousand men, and considerable militar stores were collected at different points alon

the Canada line. Skilful officers of the navy were also despatched for the purpose of arming vessels on Lake Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, if possible to gain the ascendency there, and to aid the operations of the American forces.

The American troops were distributed into three divisions—One under Gen. Harrison, called the *North Western* army; a second under Gen. Stephen Van Rensellaer, at Lewistown, called the army of the *Centre;* and a third under the commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, in the neighbourhood of Plattsburg and Greenbush, called the army of the *North.*

Section XVII. Early on the morning of the 13th of October, 1812, a detachment of about one thousand men, from the army of the Centre, crossed the river Niagara, and attacked the British on Queenstown heights. This detachment, under the command of Col. Solomon Van Rensellaer, succeeded in dislodging the enemy—but not being reinforced by the militia from the American side, as was expected, they were ultimately repulsed, and were obliged to surrender. The British Gen. Brock was killed during the engagement.

The forces designated to storm the heights, were divided into two columns: one of three hundred militia, under Col. Van Rensellaer, the other of three hundred regulars, under Col. Christie. These were to be followed by Col. Fenwick's artillery, and then the other troops in order.

Much embarrassment was experienced by the boats from the eddies, as well as by the shot of the enemy, in crossing the river. Col. Van Rensellaer led the van, and landed first with one hundred men. Scarcely had he leaped from the boat, when he received four severe wounds. Being, however, able to stand, he ordered his officers to move with rapidity and storm the fort. This service was gallantly performed, and the enemy were driven down the hill in every direction.

Both parties were now reinforced—the Americans by regulars

and militia—the British by the forty-ninth regiment, consisting of six hundred regulars, under Gen. Brock. Upon this, the conflict was renewed, in which Gen. Brock, and his aid, Captain M'Donald, fell almost in the same moment. After a desperate engagement, the enemy were repulsed, and the victory was thought complete.

Gen. Van Rensellaer now crossed over, for the purpose of fortifying the heights, preparatory to another attack, should the repulsed enemy be reinforced. This duty he assigned to Lieut. Totten, an able engineer.

But the fortune of the day was not yet decided. At three o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy, being reinforced by several hundred Chippewa Indians, rallied, and again advanced, but were a third time repulsed. At this moment, Gen. Van Rensellaer, perceiving the militia on the opposite side embarking but slowly, hastily recrossed the river, to accelerate their movements. But what was his chagrin, on reaching the American side, to hear more than twelve hundred of the militia positively refuse to embark. The sight of the engagement had cooled that ardour which, previously to the attack, the commander in chief could scarcely restrain. While their countrymen were nobly struggling for victory, they could remain idle spectators of the scene. All that a brave, resolute, and benevolent commander could do, Gen. Van Rensellaer did—he urged, entreated, commanded, but it was all in vain. Eight hundred British soldiers, from Fort George, now hove in sight, and pressed on to renew the attack. The Americans, for a time, continued to struggle against this force, but were finally obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

The number of American troops killed amounted to about sixty, and about one hundred were wounded. Those that surrendered themselves prisoners of war, including the wounded, were about seven hundred. The loss of the British is unknown; but it must have been severe.

Although the issue of this battle was unfortunate, seldom has American valour shone more conspicuously, or a victory been relinquished with more reluctance. Had but a small part of the "idle men" passed over at the critical moment, when urged by their brave commander, revolutionary history can tell of few nobler achievements than this would have been.

Section XVIII. On the 17th of October, another naval victory was achieved over an enemy decidedly superiour in force, and under circumstances the most favourable to him. This was

he capture of the brig Frolick, of twenty-two guns, by the sloop of war Wasp.

Captain Jones had returned from France two weeks after the declaration of war, and on the 13th of October, again put to sea. On the 17th, he fell in with six merchant ships, under convoy of a brig, and two ships, armed with sixteen guns each. The brig, which proved to be the Frolick, Capt. Whinyates, dropped behind, while the others made sail. At half past eleven, the action began by the enemy's cannon and musketry. In five minutes, the main-top-mast was shot away, and falling down, with the main-top-sail yard across the larboard fore and fore-top-sail, rendered her head yards unmanageable, during the rest of the action. In two minutes more, her gaff, and mizen top-gallant-mast were shot away. The sea being exceedingly rough, the muzzles of the Wasp's guns were sometimes under water.

The English fired as their vessel rose, so that their shot was either thrown away, or touched only the rigging of the Americans; the Wasp, on the contrary, fired as she sunk, and every time struck the hull of her antagonist. The fire of the Frolick was soon slackened, and Captain Jones determined to board her. As the crew leaped on board the enemy's vessel, their surprise can scarcely be imagined, as they found no person on deck, except three officers and the seaman at the wheel. The deck was slippery with blood, and presented a scene of havock and ruin. The officers now threw down their swords in submission, and Lieut. Biddle, of the Wasp, leaped into the rigging, to haul down the colours, which were still flying. Thus, in forty-three minutes, ended one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in naval history. The loss, on board the Frolick, was thirty killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Wasp, five were killed, and five slightly wounded. The Wasp and Frolick were both captured the same day, by a British seventy-four, the Poictiers, Capt. Beresford.

Section XIX. The above splendid achievement of Capt. Jones was followed on the 25th of October by another not much less splendid and decisive, by Commodore Decatur, of the frigate United States of forty-four guns, who captured the Macedonian off the Western Isles, a frigate of the largest class, mounting forty-nine guns, and manned with three hundred men.

In this action, which continued an hour and a half, the Mace-

donian lost thirty-six killed, and sixty-eight wounded: on boar the United States, seven only were killed, and five wounde The British frigate lost her main-mast, main-top-mast, an main-yard, and was injured in her hull. The United State suffered so little, that a return to port was unnecessary.

An act of generosity and benevolence on the part of ou brave tars, of this victorious frigate, deserves to be honourabl recorded. The carpenter, who was unfortunately killed in th conflict with the Macedonian, had left three small children t the care of a worthless mother. When the circumstance be came known to the brave seamen, they instantly made a contri bution amongst themselves, to the amount of eight hundred do lars, and placed it in safe hands, to be appropriated to the edu cation and maintenance of the unhappy orphans.

Section XX. December 29th a second naval victory was achieved by the Constitution, then commanded by Com. Bainbridge, over the Java, a British frigate of thirty-eight guns, bu carrying forty-nine, with four hundred men commanded by Capt. Lambert, who was mor tally wounded.

This action was fought off St. Salvador, and continued nearly two hours, when the Java struck, having lost sixty killed an one hundred and twenty wounded. The Constitution had nine men killed, and twenty-five wounded. On the 1st of January the commander, finding his prize incapable of being brought in was obliged to burn her.

Section XXI. Thus ended the year 1812 With the exception of the naval victories alrea dy mentioned, and some others of the same kind, equally honourable to America, nothing important was achieved. Neither of the armies destined for the invasion of Canada had obtained any decisive advantage, or were in possession of any post in that territory. Further preparations, however, were making for its conquest. Naval armaments were collecting on the lakes; and the soldiers, in their winter quarters, were looking forward to "battles fought and victories wo

Section XXII. 1813. January 22d, a bloody action was fought at the river Raisin, between a detachment from the north-western army, exceeding seven hundred and fifty men, under Gen. Winchester, and a combined force of British and Indians, amounting to one thousand five hundred men, under Gen. Proctor. Many of the Americans were killed and wounded. Among the former was Gen. Winchester. The remainder, on surrendering themselves prisoners of war, were nearly all inhumanly massacred by the Indians, contrary to the express stipulations of Gen. Proctor.

The station of General Harrison, the commander of the north-western army, was at this time at Franklinton. General Winchester was stationed at Fort Defiance, half way between Fort Wayne, on the Miami, and Lake Erie, with eight hundred troops, chiefly young men, of the first respectability, from Kentucky. Learning that a body of British and Indians was about to concentrate at Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, he sent a detachment to protect that place. Before the arrival of the detachment, Frenchtown was occupied by a party of the enemy, but they were dislodged after a severe engagement, in which the Americans had twelve killed, and fifty-five wounded.

On the 20th, General Winchester joined the detachment at Frenchtown, with the remainder of his troops, and, on the 22d, the battle of Raisin was fought. After a desperate conflict, in which many on both sides were killed, the Americans surrendered, with the express stipulation of being protected from the Indians.

Contrary, however, to these stipulations, the savages were permitted to indulge their full thirst for blood. The tomahawk was mercilessly buried in many a bosom, and the scalping knife wantonly tore the crown from many a head.

Even the last sad rites of sepulture were forbidden, by their murderers, and the remains of these brave youth of Kentucky lay on the ground, beat by the storms of Heaven, and exposed to the beasts of the forest, until the ensuing autumn, when their friends and relations ventured to gather up their bleaching bones, and consigned them to the tomb.

Section XXIII. During the winter, an engagement took place between the Hornet, Cap-

tain James Lawrence, and the British sloop of war Peacock, Captain William Peake, off South America. This action lasted but fifteen minutes when the Peacock struck.

On her surrendering, a signal of distress was discovered, on board the Peacock. She had been so much damaged, that, already, she had six feet of water in her hold, and was sinking fast. Boats were immediately despatched for the wounded, and every measure taken, which was practicable, to keep her afloat until the crew could be removed. Her guns were thrown overboard, the shot holes were plugged, and a part of the Hornet's crew, at the imminent hazard of their lives, laboured incessantly to rescue the vanquished. The utmost efforts of these generous men were, however, vain; the conquered vessel sunk in the midst of them, carrying down nine of her own crew and three of the Americans. With a generosity becoming them, the crew of the Hornet divided their clothing with the prisoners, who were left destitute by the sinking ship. In the action the Hornet received but a slight injury. The killed and wounded, on board the Peacock, were supposed to exceed fifty.

Section XXIV. On the 4th of March, 1813, Mr. Madison entered upon his second term of office, as president of the United States; having been re-elected by a considerable majority, though De Witt Clinton, of New-York, was supported by the federal electors. George Clinton was elected vice president: he died, however, soon after, and Elbridge Gerry succeeded him.

Section XXV. It having been communicated to the American government, that the emperour of Russia was desirous of seeing an end put to the hostilities between Great Britain and America, and had offered to mediate between the two countries, Messrs. Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, and John Quincy Adams, were, early in the spring, 1813, appointed commissioners to Russia, to meet such commissioners as should be sent by the British court, and were empowered to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain

Section XXVI. During the winter, which had now passed, Great Britain sent a number of troops to Halifax, and made considerable preparations for the defence of Canada. Similar preparations had been urged by the American government, with the hope of completing the conquest of that territory, before the close of another campaign.

About the middle of April, the commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, determined to attack York, the capital of Upper Canada, the great depository of British military stores, whence the western ports were supplied. Accordingly, on the 27th, a successful attack was made, and York fell into the hands of the Americans, with all its stores.

The command of the troops, one thousand seven hundred, detached for this purpose, was given to Gen. Pike. On the 25th, the fleet under Commodore Chauncey, moved down the lake, with the troops from Sackett's Harbour, and, on the 27th, arrived at the place of debarkation, about two miles westward from York, and one and a half from the enemies' works. The British consisting of about seven hundred and fifty regulars, and five hundred Indians, under Gen. Sheaffe, attempted to oppose the landing, but were thrown into disorder, and fled to their garrison.

Gen. Pike, having formed his men, proceeded towards the enemies' fortifications. On their near approach to the barracks, about sixty rods from the garrison, an explosion of a magazine took place, previously prepared for the purpose, which killed about one hundred of the Americans, among whom was the gallant Pike.

Pike lived to direct his troops, for a moment thrown into disorder, "to move on." This they now did under Col. Pearce; and, proceeding towards the town, took possession of the barracks. On approaching it, they were met by the officers of the Canada militia, with offers of capitulation. At four o'clock the troops entered the town.

The loss of the British in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to seven hundred and fifty—the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, about three hundred.

Section XXVII. During the remainder of the spring, the war continued along the Canada line, and on some parts of the sea board; but nothing important was achieved by either power. The Chesapeake Bay was blockaded by the British, and predatory excursions, by their troops, were made at Havre De Grace, Georgetown, &c. Several villages were burnt, and much property plundered and destroyed. To the north of the Chesapeake, the coast was not exempt from the effects of the war. A strict blockade was kept up at New-York. The American frigates United States and Macedonian, and the sloop Hornet, attempted to sail on a cruise from that port, about the beginning of May, but were prevented. In another attempt they were chased into New-London harbour where they were blockaded by a fleet under Commodore Hardy, for many months. Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans. Sackett's Harbour was attacked by one thousand British, who were repelled with considerable loss.

Section XXVIII. On the first of June, the American navy experienced no inconsiderable loss, in the capture of the Chesapeake, by the British frigate Shannon, off Boston harbour—a loss the more severely felt, as on board of her fell several brave officers, among whom was her commander, the distinguished and lamented Capt. Lawrence.

Capt. Lawrence had been but recently promoted to the command of the Chesapeake. On his arrival at Boston, to take charge of her, he was informed that a British frigate was lying off the harbour, apparently inviting an attack.—Prompted by the ardour which pervaded the service, he resolved to meet the enemy, without sufficiently examining his strength. With a

crew, chiefly enlisted for the occasion, as that of the Chesapeake had mostly been discharged, on the 1st of June, he sailed out of the harbour.

The Shannon, observing the Chesapeake put to sea, immediately followed. At half past five, the two ships engaged. By the first broadside, the sailing master of the Chesapeake was killed, and Lieut. Ballard mortally wounded: Lieut. Brown and Capt. Lawrence were severely wounded, at the same time. A second, and third broadside, besides adding to the destruction of her officers, so disabled the Chesapeake in her rigging, that her quarter fell on the Shannon's anchor. This accident may be considered as deciding the contest; an opportunity was given the enemy to rake the Chesapeake, and, toward the close of the action, to board her. Capt. Lawrence, though severely wounded, still kept the deck. In the act of summoning the boarders, a musket ball entered his body, and brought him down. As he was carried below, he issued a last heroick order, "*Don't give up the ship;*" but it was too late to retrieve what was lost; the British boarders leaped into the vessel, and after a short, but bloody struggle, hoisted the British flag.

In this sanguinary conflict, twenty three of the enemy were killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Chesapeake about seventy were killed, and eighty-three wounded.

Section XXIX. The tide of fortune seemed now, for a short time, to turn in favour of Great Britain. On the 14th of August, the Argus, of eighteen guns, another of our national vessels, was captured by the Pelican of twenty guns.

The Argus had been employed to carry out Mr. Crawford, as minister, to France. After landing him, she proceeded to cruise in the British channel, and, for two months, greatly annoyed the British shipping. At length that government was induced to send several vessels in pursuit of her. On the 14th of August, the Pelican, a sloop of war, of superior force, discovered her, and bore down to action. At the first broadside Capt. Allen fell severely wounded, but remained on deck for some time, when it was necessary to carry him below. After a hard fought action, the Argus was obliged to surrender, with a loss of six killed and seventeen wounded. On board the Pelican there were but three killed and five wounded. Captain Allen died soon after, in England, and was interred with the honours of war.

Section XXX. After the loss of the Chesapeake and Argus, victory again returned to the

side of America. On the 5th of September following, the British brig Boxer surrendered to the Enterprize, after an engagement of little more than half an hour.

The Enterprize sailed from Portsmouth on the 1st, and was on the fifth descried by the Boxer, which immediately gave chase. After the action had continued for fifteen minutes, the Enterprize ranged ahead, and raked her enemy so powerfully that in twenty minutes the firing ceased, and the cry of quarter was heard. The Enterprize had one killed and thirteen wounded; but that one was her lamented commander, Lieutenant Burrows. He fell at the commencement of the action but continued to cheer his crew, averring that the flag should never be struck. When the sword of the enemy was presented to him, he exclaimed "I die contented." The British loss was more considerable. Among their killed was Captain Blythe. These two commanders, both in the morning of life, were interred beside each other, at Portland, with military honours.

Section XXXI. During these occurrences on the sea board, important preparations had been made for decisive measures to the westward, and the general attention was now turned, with great anxiety, towards the movements of the northwestern army, and the fleet under command of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie.

This anxiety, not long after, was, in a measure, dispelled by a decisive victory of the American fleet, over that of the British, on Lake Erie, achieved, after a long and desperate conflict, on the 10th of September.

The American squadron consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns, that of the British, of six vessels and sixty-three guns. The line of battle was formed at eleven, and at a quarter before twelve, the enemy's flag ship, Queen Charlotte, opened a tremendous fire upon the Lawrence, the flag ship of Commodore Perry, which was sustained by the latter, ten minutes before she could bring her carronades to bear. At length, she bore up and engaged the enemy, making signals to the remainder of the squadron to hasten to her support. Unfortunately, the wind was too light to admit of a compliance with the order, and she was compelled to contend, for two hours, with two ships of

equal force. By this time, the brig had become unmanageable, and her crew, excepting four or five, were either killed or wounded.

While thus surrounded with death,—and destruction still pouring in upon him, Perry left the brig, now only a wreck, in an open boat, and heroically waving his sword, passed unhurt to the Niagara of twenty guns. The wind now rose. Ordering every canvass to be spread, he bore down upon the enemy:—passing the enemy's vessels, Detroit, Queen Charlotte, and Lady Prevost, on the one side, and the Chippewa, and Little Belt, on the other, into each of which, he poured a broadside—he at length engaged the Lady Provost, which received so heavy a fire as to compel her men to retire below.

The remainder of the American squadron, now, one after another, arrived, and following the example of their intrepid leader, closed in with the enemy, and the battle became general.

Three hours finished the contest, and enabled Perry to announce to Gen. Harrison the capture of the whole squadron, which he did, in this modest, laconick, and emphatick style: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

The loss in the contest was great in proportion to the numbers engaged. The Americans had twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. But the British loss was still greater, being about two hundred in killed and wounded. The prisoners amounted to six hundred, exceeding the whole number of Americans engaged in the action.

Section XXXII. The Americans were now masters of Lake Erie, but Detroit and Malden were in possession of the British General Proctor. Against these, Gen. Harrison, commander of the north-western army, now resolved to direct his forces.

Col. Johnson, with a body of Kentuckians, was despatched against Detroit. Gen. Harrison with his troops repaired on board the fleet, and the same day reached Malden. The British general, however, destroyed Malden, and retired with his forces.

Finding Malden destroyed, Harrison next determined to proceed in pursuit of Proctor. On the 2d of October, with about two thousand five hundred men, selected for the purpose, he com-

menced a rapid march, and, on the 5th, reached the place where the enemy had encamped the night before. Col. Johnson, who had joined Gen. Harrison, was sent forward to reconnoitre the enemy, and soon returned with the information that they had made a stand a few miles distant, and were ready for action.

The American troops were now formed in order of battle. The armies engaged, and, for a time, the strife raged with fury. Providence, however, gave to the Americans a decisive victory, and Detroit fell into their hands.

In this engagement, the loss of the British was nineteen regulars killed, fifty wounded, and about six hundred prisoners. The Indians left one hundred and twenty on the field. The loss of the Americans did not exceed fifty.

In this battle were engaged one thousand two hundred or one thousand five hundred Indians, led on by Tecumseh, a savage warriour, than whom the annals of history can scarcely boast a greater. Since the defeat of Harmer he had been in almost every engagement with the whites. On the opening of the late war, he visited various tribes, and, by his eloquence and influence, roused his countrymen to arms against the United States.

Section XXXIII. The fall of Detroit put an end to the Indian war in that quarter, and gave security to the frontiers. Gen. Harrison now dismissed a greater part of his volunteers, and having stationed Gen. Cass at Detroit, with about one thousand men, proceeded, according to his instructions, with the remainder of his forces, to Buffalo, to join the army of the centre.

Section XXXIV. The result of the operations of the north-west, and the victory on Lake Erie, prepared the way to attempt a more effectual invasion of Canada.

Gen. Wilkinson was now commanding the American forces in the north, Gen. Dearborn having some time before retired on account of

indisposition. The force destined for the contemplated invasion of Canada, amounted to twelve thousand men,—eight thousand of whom were stationed at Niagara, and four thousand at Plattsburg, under the command of Gen. Hampton.—In addition to these forces, those under Gen. Harrison were expected to arrive in season to furnish important assistance.

The outline of the plan which had been adopted, was to descend the St. Lawrence, passing the British forts above, and, after a junction with Gen. Hampton, at some designated point on the river, to proceed to the Island of Montreal. Unexpected difficulties, however, occurred, which prevented the execution of this plan, and the American forces retired into winter quarters at St. Regis.

Gen. Wilkinson concentrated his forces at Grenadiers' Island, between Sackett's Harbour and Kingston, one hundred and eighty miles from Montreal, by the way of the river. This place the army left, on the 25th of October, on board the fleet, and descended the St. Lawrence, sanguine in the expectation of subduing Montreal.

On the arrival of the flotilla at Williamsburg, November 9th, one thousand five hundred men, of Gen. Boyd's brigade, were landed with a view to cover the boats in their passage through the rapids. On the 11th an engagement took place, which continued two hours, between this detachment of the American army, and a detachment of the British under Lieut. Col. Morrison.—Both parties claimed the victory, but it was, properly, a drawn battle, the British retiring to their encampments, and the Americans to their boats. The loss of the British is not ascertained; that of the Americans, in killed wounded, was three hundred and thirty-nine. Among the latter was Gen. Carrington, who died of his wounds.

A few days previous to this battle, as Gen. Harrison had not arrived, Gen. Wilkinson despatched orders to Gen. Hampton to meet him at St. Regis. To these orders, Gen. Hampton replied, that it was impracticable to comply with them. On the receipt of this communication, a council of officers was called, which advised to abandon the project and to retire. Accord-

ingly, Gen. Wilkinson ordered a retreat, and selected French Mills, as the winter quarters of his army. The troops of Gen Hampton soon followed this example.

Thus ended a campaign which gave rise to dissatisfaction, proportioned to the high expectations that had been indulged of its success. Publick opinion was much divided as to the causes of its failure, and as to the parties to whom the blame was properly to be attached.

Section XXXV. The proposal of the emperour of Russia to mediate between the United States and Great Britain, with reference to an amicable adjustment of their differences, and the appointment of Messrs. Gallatin, Adams, and Bayard, as commissioners under that proposal, have been mentioned. This proposal, however, Great Britain thought expedient to decline; but the prince regent offered a direct negotiation, either at London or Gottenburg. The offer was no sooner communicated to our government, than accepted, and Messrs. Henry Clay, Jonathan Russel, and Albert Gallatin, were appointed in addition to the commissioners already in Europe, and soon after sailed for Gottenburg. Lord Gambier, Henry Goulbourn, and William Adams, were appointed on the part of the court of St. James, to meet them. The place of their meeting was first fixed at Gottenburg, but subsequently was changed to Ghent, in Flanders, where the commissioners assembled in August.

Section XXXVI. The spring of 1814 was distinguished for the loss of the American frigate Essex, Commodore David Porter, which was captured on the 28th of March, in the bay of Valparaiso, South America, by a superiour British force.

Commodore Porter had been cruising in the Pacifick for nearly a year, in the course of which he had captured several British armed whale ships. Some of these were equipped as American cruisers and store ships; and the Atlantick, now called the Essex Junior, of twenty guns and sixty men, was assigned to Lieut. Downes. The prizes which were to be laid up, were convoyed by this officer to Valparaiso. On his return, he brought intelligence to Commodore Porter that a British squadron, consisting of one frigate, and two sloops of war, and a store ship of twenty guns, had sailed in quest of the Essex. The commodore took measures, immediately, to repair his vessel, which, having accomplished, on the 12th of December, 1813, he sailed for Valparaiso, in company with the Essex Junior.

"It was not long after the arrival of Commodore Porter at Valparaiso, when Commodore Hillyar appeared there in the Phœbe frigate, accompanied by the Cherub sloop of war.—These vessels had been equipped for the purpose of meeting the Essex, with picked crews, in prime order, and hoisted flags bearing the motto, "God and our country, British sailors' best rights; *traitors offend them.*" This was in allusion to Porter's celebrated motto, "Free trade and sailors' rights;" he now hoisted at his mizzen, "God, our country, and liberty: tyrants offend them." On entering the harbour, the British commodore fell foul of the Essex, in such a situation as to be placed completely in the power of the latter; the forbearance of Commodore Porter was acknowledged by the English commander, and he passed his word and honour to observe the same regard to the neutrality of the port.

"The British vessels soon after stood out, and cruised off the port about six weeks, rigorously blockading the Essex. Their united force amounted to eighty-one guns and about five hundred men, about double that of the Essex; but the circumstance of this force being divided in two ships, rendered the disparity still greater; and was by no means counterbalanced by the Essex Junior. Commodore Porter being prevented by this great disparity of force, from engaging, made repeated attempts to draw the Phœbe into action singly, either by manœuvring or sending formal challenges; but Commodore Hillyar carefully avoided the coming to action alone. The American commander, hearing that an additional British force was on its way, and having discovered that his vessel could outsail those of the British, determined to sail out, and, while the enemy was in chase, enable the Essex Junior to escape to a place of rendezvous previously appointed.

"On the twenty-eighth of March, the wind coming on to blow fresh from the southward: the Essex parted her starboard

cable, and dragged her larboard anchor to sea. Not a moment was lost in getting sail on the ship, as it was determined to seize this moment to escape. In endeavouring to pass to the windward of the enemy, a squall struck the American vessel just as she was doubling the point, which carried away her main-top-mast; both ships immediately gave chase, and being unable to escape in his crippled state, the commodore endeavoured to put back into the harbour; but finding this impracticable, he ran into a small bay, and anchored within pistol shot of the shore: where, from a supposition that the enemy would continue to respect the neutrality of the port, he thought himself secure. He soon found, however, by the manner in which they approached, that he was mistaken. With all possible despatch therefore, he prepared his ship for action, and endeavoured to get a spring on his cable, which he could not accomplish before the enemy commenced the attack, at fifty-four minutes past three.

At first the Phœbe placed herself on his stern, and the Cherub on his larboard bow; but the latter soon finding herself exposed to a hot fire, changed her position, and with her consort kept up a raking fire under his stern. The American, being unable to bring his broadside to bear on the enemy, his spring cables having been three times shot away, was obliged, therefore, to rely for defence against this tremendous attack, on three long twelve pounders, which he ran out of the stern ports; which were worked with such bravery and skill, as in half an hour to do so much injury to the enemy, as to compel them to haul off and repair.

It was evident that Commodore Hillyar meant to risk nothing from the daring courage of the Americans; all his manœuvres were deliberate and wary; his antagonist was in his power, and his only concern was to succeed with as little loss to himself as possible. The situation of the Essex was most vexatious to our brave countrymen; many of them were already killed and wounded, and from the crippled state of their ship, they were unable to bring her guns to bear upon the enemy.—Her gallant crew were not disheartened; aroused to desperation, they expressed their defiance to the enemy, and their determination to hold out to the last.

The enemy having repaired, now placed himself, with both ships on the starboard quarter of the Essex, where none of her guns could be brought to bear; the commodore saw no hope but in getting under way; the flying-jib was the only sail he could set; this he caused to be hoisted, cut his cable, and ran down on both ships, with the intention of laying the Phœbe on board. For a short time he was enabled to close with the ene

my, and the firing was tremendous; the decks of the Essex were strewed with dead, and her cockpit filled with the wounded; she had been several times on fire, and was, in fact, a perfect wreck. At this moment, a feeble hope arose, that she might still be saved, in consequence of the Cherub being compelled to haul off on account of her crippled state; she, however, kept up her fire at a distance, with her long guns. The Essex was unable, however, to take advantage of the circumstance, as the Phœbe edged off, and also kept up, at a distance, a destructive fire; the former being totally bereft of her sails, could not bring her to close quarters.

Commodore Porter finding the greater part of his crew disabled, at last gave up all hope, and attempted to run his vessel on shore, the wind at that moment favouring his design; but it suddenly changed, drove her close upon the Phœbe, exposing her to a raking fire. The ship was totally unmanageable, but as she drifted with her head to the enemy, Commodore Porter again seized a faint hope of being able to board. At this moment Lieutenant Downes came on board, to receive orders, expecting that his commander would soon be a prisoner. His services could be of no avail in the present deplorable state of the Essex, and finding from the enemy's putting up his helm, that the last attempt at boarding would not succeed, Downes was directed to repair to his ship, to be prepared for defending and destroying her, in case of attack.

The slaughter on board the Essex now became horrible, the enemy continuing to rake her while she was unable to bring a single gun to bear. Still her commander refused to yield while a ray of hope appeared. Every expedient, that a fertile and inventive genius could suggest, was resorted to, in the forlorn hope, that he might be able, by some lucky chance, to escape from the grasp of the foe. A hawser was bent to the sheet anchor, and the anchor cut from the bows, to bring the ship's head around. This succeeded; the broadside of the Essex was again brought to bear; and as the enemy was much crippled, and unable to hold his own, the commodore thought she might drift out of gunshot, before he discovered that the Essex had anchored; but alas! this last expedient failed; the hawser parted, and with it went the last lingering hope of the Essex.

At this moment her situation was awful beyond description. She was on fire both before and aft, the flames were bursting up her hatchway, a quantity of powder exploded below, and word was given that the fire was near her magazine. Thus surrounded by horrours, without any chance of saving his ship, he turned his attention to the saving as many of his gallant companions as he could; the distance to the shore not exceeding three quarters

of a mile, he hoped that many of them would save themselves before the ship blew up. His boats being cut up, they could only hope to escape by swimming; by some this was effected, but the greater part of his generous crew resolved to stay by the ship, and share the fate of their commander.

They now laboured to extinguish the flames, and succeeded; after this, they again repaired to their guns, but their strength had become so much exhausted, that this effort was in vain. Commodore Porter summoned a consultation of the officers of the divisions, when to his astonishment only one acting lieutenant, Stephen Decatur M'Night, appeared. The accounts from every part of the ship were deplorable indeed; she was in imminent danger of sinking, and so crowded with the wounded, that even her birthdeck could hold no more, and several were killed under the surgeon's hands. In the mean time the enemy, at a secure distance, continued his fire; the water having become smooth, he struck the hull of the Essex at every shot. At last, despairing of saving his ship, the commodore was compelled, at twenty minutes past six, to give the painful orders to strike the colours. The enemy, probably not seeing that this had taken place, continued to fire for ten minutes after, and Porter was about to give orders that the colours should again be hoisted, under a belief that the enemy intended to give no quarters, when the firing ceased. The loss on board the Essex was fifty-eight killed, thirty-nine wounded severely, twenty-seven slightly, and thirty one missing. The loss on board the British vessels was five killed and ten wounded; but they were both much cut up in their hulls and rigging; the Phœbe could scarcely be kept afloat until she anchored in the port of Valparaiso next morning.

Commodore Porter was paroled, and permitted to return to the United States in the Essex Junior, which was converted into a cartel for the purpose. On arriving off the port of New-York, the vessel was detained by the Saturn razee, and to the disgrace of the British navy, already dishonoured by the base attack upon this gallant officer, he was compelled to give up his parole, and declare himself a prisoner of war, and, as such, he informed the British officer that he would attempt his escape. In consequence of this threat, the Essex Junior was ordered to remain under the lee of the Saturn; but the next morning Commodore Porter put off in his boat, though thirty miles from shore, and notwithstanding the pursuit by those of the Saturn, arrived safely in New-York."*

* Brackenridge.

Section XXXVII. Towards the close of April, after an action of forty-two minutes, the British brig Epervier surrendered to the Peacock. Fort Erie was taken from the British, early in July, and during the same month, sanguinary battles were fought at Chippewa and Bridgewater.

In the battle of Bridgewater, or Niagara, Generals Brown and Scott commanded the Americans; Generals Drummond and Riall the British. The battle lasted from four o'clock, P. M. till midnight. The British loss was nine hundred in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the loss of the Americans did not exceed one hundred. The former were obliged to retire.

Section XXXVIII. While these events were transpiring in the north, the publick attention was irresistibly drawn to the movements of the enemy on the sea-board. About the middle of August, between fifty and sixty sail of the British arrived in the Chesapeake, with troops destined for the attack of Washington, the capital of the United States. On the 23d of August, six thousand British troops, commanded by Gen. Ross, forced their way to that place, burnt the capitol, president's house, and executive offices. Having thus accomplished an object highly disgraceful to the British arms, and wantonly burned publick buildings, the ornament and pride of the nation, the destruction of which could not hasten the termination of the war—on the 25th they retired, and, by rapid marches, regained their shipping, having lost, during the expedition, nearly one thousand men.

The troops, under Gen. Ross, were landed at Benedict, on the Pawtuxet, forty-seven miles from Washington. On the 21st, they moved toward Nottingham, and, the following day, reached Marlborough. A British flotilla, commanded by Cockburn, consisting of launches and barges, ascended the river at the same time, keeping on the right flank of the army. The day following, on approaching the American flotilla of Com. Barney, which had taken refuge high up the river, twelve miles

from Washington, some sailors left on board the flotilla for th purpose, should it be necessary, set fire to it, and fled.

On the arrival of the British army at Bladensburg, six mil from Washington, Gen. Winder, commander of the America forces, chiefly militia collected for the occasion, ordered them engage the enemy. The principal part of the militia, howeve fled, at the opening of the contest. Commodore Barney, wi a few eighteen pounders, and about four hundred men, made gallant resistance; but being overpowered by numbers, ar himself wounded, he and a part of his brave band were compe ed to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

From Bladensburg, Gen. Ross urged his march to Washin ton, where he arrived at about 8 o'clock in the evening. Havir stationed his main body at the distance of a mile and a ha from the capitol, he entered the city, at the head of about seve hundred men, soon after which, he issued his orders for the co flagration of the publick buildings. With the capitol were co sumed its valuable libraries, and all the furniture, and articles taste and value in that and in the other buildings. The gre bridge across the Potomack was burnt, together with an elega hotel, and other private buildings.

Section XXXIX. The capture of Washing ton was followed, September 12th, by an attac on Baltimore, in which the American force militia, and inhabitants of Baltimore, made gallant defence. Being, however, overpowere by a superiour force, they were compelled t retreat; but they fought so valiantly, that th attempt to gain possession of the city was aban doned by the enemy, who, during the night Tuesday, 13th, retired to their shipping, havin lost among their killed, Gen. Ross, the comma der in chief of the British troops.

The British army, after the capture of Washington, havir re-embarked on board the fleet in the Pawtuxent, Admiral Coc rane moved down that river, and proceeded up the Chesapeak On the morning of the 11th of September, he appeared at th mouth of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from Baltimore, with fleet of ships of war and transports, amounting to fifty sail.

On the next day, 12th, land forces, to the number of six tho sand, were landed at North Point, and, under the command Gen. Ross, commenced their march towards the city. In an cipation of the landing of the troops, Gen. Stricker was despatc

ed with three thousand two hundred men from Baltimore, to keep the enemy in check.

On the 12th, a battle was fought by the two armies. Early in the engagement, a considerable part of Gen. Stricker's troops retreated in confusion, leaving him scarcely one thousand four hundred men, to whom was opposed the whole body of the enemy. An incessant fire was continued from half past two o'clock, till a little before four, when Gen. Stricker, finding the contest unequal, and that the enemy outflanked him, retreated upon his reserve, which was effected in good order.

The loss of the Americans, in killed and wounded, amounted to one hundred and sixty three, among whom were some of the most respectable citizens of Baltimore.

The enemy made his appearance, the next morning, in front of the American entrenchments, at a distance of two miles from the city, showing an intention of renewing the attack.

In the meantime, an attack was made on fort M'Henry, from frigates, bombs, and rocket vessels, which continued through the day, and the greater part of the night, doing, however, but little damage.

In the course of the night of Tuesday, Admiral Cochrane held a communication with the commander of the land forces, and the enterprise of taking the city being deemed impracticable, the troops were re-embarked, and the next day, the fleet descended the bay, to the great joy of the released inhabitants.

Section XL. During these troubles in the south, the enemy were far from being inactive in other parts of the United States. August 14th, Fort Erie was attacked by the British, commanded by Lieut. Gen. Drummond; but, after a severe engagement, they were repulsed, with a loss of six hundred, in killed, and wounded, and prisoners. The American loss was two hundred and forty-five.

September 1st. The British took possession of Castine, in Maine, as sometime before they had taken Eastport, a town situated on one of the islands of the bay of Passammaquoddy. About this time, also, the seaports along the shores of New England being seriously threatened, the militia were called out, by the autho-

rities of the States bordering on the sound, t repel the expected foe.

Section XLI. The joy experienced in a parts of the United States, on account of th brave defence of Baltimore, had scarcely sub sided, when intelligence was received of th signal success of the Americans at Plattsburg and on Lake Champlain. The army of Si George Prevost, amounting to fourteen thou sand men, was compelled by Gen. Macomb t retire from the former, and the enemy's squa dron, commanded by Commodore Downie, wa captured by Commodore Macdonough on th latter.

Towards the close of the winter of 1814, General Wilkinson with his army, removed from their winter-quarters at St. Regi and took station at Plattsburg. Gen. Wilkinson leaving th command of the army, Gen. Macomb succeeded him at th place. By September, the troops at Plattsburg were diminish ed by detachments, withdrawn to other stations, to one thousan five hundred men.

In this state of the forces, it was announced that Sir Georg Prevost, governour-general of Canada, with an army of fou teen thousand men, completely equipped, and accompanied b a numerous train of artillery, was about making a descent o Plattsburg.

At this time, both the Americans and British had a respect ble naval force on lake Champlain; but that of the latter wa considerably the superiour, amounting to ninety-five guns, an one thousand and fifty men, while the American squadron ca ried but eighty-six guns, and eight hundred and twenty-six mer

On the 11th of September, while the American fleet was lyin off Plattsburg, the British squadron was observed bearing dow upon it in order of battle.

Com. Macdonough, ordering his vessels cleared for actio gallantly received the enemy. An engagement ensued, whic lasted two hours and twenty minutes. By this time, the enem was silenced, and one frigate, one brig, and two sloops of wa fell into the hands of the Americans. Several British galley were sunk and a few others escaped. The loss of the Amer cans was fifty-two killed, and fifty-eight wounded; of the Br tish, eighty-four killed, and one hundred and ten wounded.

Previously to this eventful day, Sir George Prevost, with his army, arrived in the vicinity of Plattsburg. In anticipation of this event, Gen. Macomb made every preparation which time and means allowed, and called in to his assistance considerable numbers of the militia.

In the sight of these two armies, the rival squadrons commenced their contest. And, as if their engagement had been a preconcerted signal; and as if to raise still higher the solemn grandeur of the scene; Sir George Prevost now led up his forces against the American works, and began throwing upon them, shells, balls, and rockets.

At the same time, the Americans opened a severe and destructive fire from their forts. Before sunset, the temporary batteries of Sir George Prevost were all silenced, and every attempt of the enemy to cross from Plattsburg to the American works* was repelled. At nine o'clock, perceiving the attainment of his object impracticable, the British general hastily drew off his forces, diminished by killed, wounded, and deserted, two thousand five hundred. At the same time he abandoned vast quantities of military stores, and left the inhabitants of Plattsburg to take care of the sick and wounded of his army, and the "star-spangled banner" to wave in triumph, over the waters of Champlain.

Section XLII. It has been already noticed, that the New England representatives in congress, as well as a great portion of the people in that section of the country, were early and strongly opposed to the war with Great Britain. During the progress of the war, this opposition continued, and became confirmed. Enlistments of troops into the army from this quarter were, therefore, fewer than under other circumstances might have been expected. Dissentions also arose between the general and state governments respecting the command of the militia, called out by order of the former, to defend the sea-board. Great dissatisfaction prevailed from

* The village of Plattsburg is situated on the northeast side of the small river Saranac, near its entrance into the lake, and the American works are directly opposite.

an apprehension that the affairs of the genera
government were mis-managed, and, to many
it appeared that a crisis was forming, which
unless seasonably provided against, might in
volve the country in ruin.

Such apprehensions for the political safet
extensively prevailing throughout New Eng
land, it was deemed important, by those wh
felt for them, to take measures to remove pul
lick grievances, and to provide against antic
pated evils.

Accordingly, on the 8th of October, 1814, a
an extra session of the Massachusetts Legisla
ture, a committee, to whom was referred th
speech of the governour, (Strong,) in the con
clusion of their report, recommend the appoin
ment of "delegates to meet and confer wit
delegates from the States of New England, o
any of them, upon the subjects of their public
grievances and concerns"—"and also to tak
measures, if they shall think proper, for procu
ing a convention of delegates from all the Un
ted States, in order to revise the constitutio
thereof, and more effectually to secure the su
port and attachment of *all* the people, by pla
ing *all* upon the basis of fair representation."

This resolution met with a spirited oppositio
from a respectable minority, both in the sena
and house of representatives—but finally pas
ed. Delegates were accordingly chosen. Th
example was followed by Rhode-Island an
Connecticut. Vermont refused, and New-Hamp
shire neglected to send.

On the 15th of December, these delegate
together with two elected by counties in New
Hampshire, and one similarly elected in Ve

mont, met at Hartford. After a session of near three weeks, they published a report, in which, after dwelling upon the publick grievances felt by the New England States particularly, and by the country at large, in no small degree, they proceeded to suggest several alterations of the federal constitution, with a view to their adoption by the respective states of the Union.

These alterations consisted of seven articles—*first*, that representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned to the number of free persons;—*secondly*, that no new State shall be admitted into the union without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*thirdly*, that congress shall not have power to lay an embargo for more than sixty days;—*fourthly*, that congress shall not interdict commercial intercourse, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*fifthly*, that war shall not be declared without the concurrence of a similar majority;—*sixthly*, that no person who shall be hereafter naturalized, shall be eligible as a member of the senate or house of representatives, or hold any civil office under the authority of the United States; and *seventhly*, that no person shall be elected twice to the presidency, nor the president be elected from the same State two terms in succession.

The report of the convention concluded with a resolution, providing for the calling of another convention, should the United States "refuse their consent to some arrangement whereby the New England States, separately, or in concert, might be empowered to assume upon themselves the defence of their territory against the enemy," appropriating a reasonable proportion of the publick taxes for this purpose; or, 'should peace not be concluded, and the defence of the New-England States be neglected as it has been since the commencement of the war."

The conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain, not long after being announced, another convention was not called; and on the submission of the above amendments of the constitution to the several states, they were rejected.

No act of the federal party has been so bitterly reprehend by their opponents, as the formation of the Hartford Conventio It is represented by them, as a treasonable combination of a bitious individuals, who, taking advantage of the embarrassmen of the national administration, arising out of the war, sought sever the union; and were only deterred from an open attem to accomplish their purpose by the unexpected conclusion of treaty of peace with Great Britain—which disembarrassed t administration—and swept away all grounds upon which to pr secute their designs.

In defence of the convention, it is urged, that the individua who composed it, assembled in obedience to legislative appoin ment; and be the formation of a convention right or wron they, as individuals, were not responsible for it. That the ca ing of the convention was right, is urged on the followi grounds: at the period of its formation, the situation of the cou try was such as gave serious grounds of alarm to reflecting me —the war operations had been singularly disastrous; the recru ing service languished; the national treasury was almost pe niless; the national credit was shaken, and loans were effect at a ruinous discount; the New-England seaboard was left e posed to the enemy—and instead of securing the confidence the people of the eastern states, by filling the military and ci offices under the general government, with men of known t lents and character, the administration committed the interes of the nation at a critical period to men contemned by a va majority of the people in those states.

The publick mind in view of this state of things, was exc ed to a pitch bordering on insurrection; and as their represent tion in congress was unheard, they looked with earnest impo tunity to their state legislatures. What could be done? Fro the earliest dates of its history, the legislatures of New-Engla had been accustomed to call conventions, at periods of comm danger, to confer upon the publick welfare. It was natural this moment to resort to the same course; and instead of favou ing the suspicion of treasonable intentions by the character the men selected to form this convention; the age, gravity, a established reputation of the greater part of the members of it a a fair refutation of such suspicions. There are no clear proo to support the charge of treasonable designs on the part of t convention; on the contrary their *doings*, which are the on fair test of their motives, and the only just grounds upon whi to form its character, and which are before the world in their r port, and their secret journal, triumphantly refute such a charg And it is further maintained that the actual operation of the pr ceedings of the convention, was, instead of rousing opposition

he general government, to soothe the publick apprehensions, and quiet that restless anxiety which pervaded the country.

Section XLIII. As early as the month of September, indications of no dubious character were given, that notwithstanding the negotiations pending between the American and British commissioners at Ghent, serious preparations were making for an invasion of Louisiana. About December 5th, certain intelligence was received that a British fleet, consisting of sixty sail, was off the coast to the east of the Mississippi. In the course of the month, fifteen thousand troops were landed, under the command of Sir Edward Packenham, and, on the 8th of January, they attacked the Americans, amounting to about six thousand, chiefly militia, in their intrenchments, before New-Orleans. After an engagement of more than an hour, the enemy, having lost their commander in chief, and Major-General Gibbs, and having been cut to pieces in an almost unexampled degree, fled in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded on the field of battle.

On the receipt of intelligence that the enemy were off the coast of the Mississippi, Commodore Patterson despatched five gun boats to watch their motions. These boats being unfortunately captured, the enemy were left to choose their point of attack, entirely unmolested.

A part of the British forces were landed on the 22d of December, and several engagements took place between them and the Americans, some miles from New-Orleans, but nothing decisive was effected on either side.

During these preliminary engagements, Gen. Jackson, commanding at New-Orleans, had been diligently employed in preparations to defend the place. His front was a straight line of one thousand yards, defended by upwards of three thousand infantry and artillerists. The ditch contained five feet of water, and his front, from having been flooded by opening the levees, and by frequent rains, was rendered slippery and muddy. Eight distinct batteries were judiciously disposed, mounting in all twelve

guns of different calibres. On the opposite side of the river was a strong battery of fifteen guns.

On the morning of the 8th of January, General Packenham brought up his forces, amounting to twelve thousand men, to the attack. The British deliberately advanced in solid columns over an even plain, in front of the American intrenchments, the men carrying, besides their muskets, fascines, and some of them ladders.

A solemn silence now prevailed through the American lines until the enemy approached within reach of the batteries, which at that moment opened an incessant and destructive cannonade. The enemy, notwithstanding, continued to advance, closing up their ranks as fast as they were opened by the fire of the Americans.

At length, they came within reach of the musketry and rifles. The extended American line now unitedly presented one sheet of fire, and poured in upon the British columns, an unceasing tide of death. Hundreds fell at every discharge, and by columns were swept away.

Being unable to stand the shock, the British became disordered and fled. In an attempt to rally them, Gen. Packenham was killed. Generals Gibbs and Kean succeeded in pushing forward their columns a second time, but the second approach was still more fatal than the first. The fires again rolled from the American batteries, and from thousands of muskets. The advancing columns again broke and fled; a few platoons only reached the edge of the ditch, there to meet a more certain destruction. In a third but unavailing attempt to lead up their troops, Generals Gibbs and Kean were severely wounded, the former mortally.

The field of battle now exhibited a scene of extended carnage. Seven hundred brave soldiers were sleeping in death, and one thousand four hundred were wounded. Five hundred were made prisoners—making a loss to the British, on this memorable day, of near three thousand men. The Americans lost in the engagement only seven killed, and six wounded.

The enemy now sullenly retired, and on the night of the 18th, evacuated their camp, and, with great secresy, embarked on board their shipping.

Section XLIV. The news of the victory at New-Orleans spread with haste through the United States, and soon after was followed by the still more welcome tidings of a treaty of peace, which was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of

December, 1814. On the 17th of February, this treaty was ratified by the president and senate.

Upon the subjects for which the war had been professedly declared, the treaty, thus concluded, was silent. It provided only for the suspension of hostilities—the exchange of prisoners—the restoration of territories and possessions obtained by the contending powers, during the war—the adjustment of unsettled boundaries—and for a combined effort to effect the entire abolition of traffick in slaves.

But whatever diversity of opinion had prevailed about the justice or policy of the war—or now prevailed about the merits of the treaty—all parties welcomed the return of peace. The soldier gladly exchanged the toils of the camp for the rest of his home; the mariner once more spread his canvass to the wind, and, fearless of molestation, joyfully stretched his way on the ocean; and the yeomanry of the land, unaccustomed to the din of arms, gladly returned to their wonted care of the field, and the flock.

Section XLV. The treaty with England was followed, on the 30th of June, 1815, by a treaty with the dey of Algiers, concluded at Algiers at that time, by William Shaler, and Com. Stephen Decatur, agents for the United States.

The war which thus ended by treaty was commenced by the dey himself, as early as the year 1812. At that time the American consul, Mr. Lear, was suddenly ordered to depart from Algiers, on account of the arrival of a cargo of naval and military stores, for the regency of Algiers, in fulfilment of treaty stipulations, which the dey alleged were not such in quantity or quality as he expected. At the same time, depredations were commenced upon our commerce. Several American vessels were captured and condemned, and their crews subjected to slavery.

Upon a representation of the case, by the president, to congress, that body formally declared war against the dey in March. Soon after an American squadron sailed for the Mediterranean, captured an Algerine brig, and a forty-four gun frigate, and at length appeared before Algiers.

The respectability of the American force, added to the two important victories already achieved, had prepared the way for the American commissioners to dictate a treaty upon such a basis as they pleased. Accordingly, the model of a treaty was sent to the dey, who signed it. By this treaty, the United States were exempted from paying tribute in future—captured property

was to be restored by the dey—prisoners to be delivered up without ransom, &c. &c.

Section XLVI. By the ninth article of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, it was stipulated by the former, that measures should be immediately taken to establish a peace with the several tribes of Indians, which had been engaged in hostilities against the United States. Such measures were accordingly taken, and, in his message, December, 1815, the president communicated to congress, that a renewal of treaties had readily been acceded to by several tribes, and that other more distant tribes would probably follow their example, upon proper explanations.

Section XLVII. The treaty with Great Britain, which ended the war, left the subject of commercial intercourse between the two nations to future negotiation. In the summer following the close of the war, plenipotentiaries, respectively appointed by the two countries for that purpose, met at London, and on the third of July, signed "a convention, by which to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States, and of his Britanick majesty."

This convention provided for a reciprocal liberty of commerce between the two countries—for an equalization of duties on importations and exportations from either country to the other—and for the admission of American vessels to the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz. Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, &c. Of this convention the president spoke in terms of approbation, in his message to congress; but by a large portion of the community it was received with coldness, from an apprehension that it would operate unfavourably to America, and would seriously abridge her commerce. The convention was to be binding only for four years.

Section XLVIII. By the second article of the treaty with Great Britain, it was agreed, that all vessels, taken by either power, within twelve

days from the exchange of ratifications, between twenty-three degrees and fifty degrees of north latitude, should be considered lawful prizes. A longer period was stipulated for more distant latitudes. Within the time limited by this article, several actions took place, and several vessels of various descriptions were captured by each of the belligerents. The frigate President was taken January 15th, 1815, by a British squadron; the British ships Cyane, Levant, and Penguin, were captured by the Americans.

In consequence of the continued blockade of Commodore Decatur's squadron at New-London, that officer was transferred to the President, then at New-York. Soon after taking command of her, a cruise was contemplated by the commodore, in conjunction with the Peacock, Hornet, and Tom Bowline. Thinking it more safe to venture out singly, the commodore appointed a place of rendezvous for the vessels, and set sail in the President. Through the carelessness of the pilot, his vessel, in passing out, struck upon the bar, where she lay for two hours tossing about, by which her ballast was deranged, and her trim for sailing lost. Trusting to the excellence of his vessel, however, and not being able to return to port, the commodore put out to sea.

At daylight, he fell in with a British squadron, consisting of the Endymion, Tenedos, and Pomone frigates, with the Majestick razee. In spite of every exertion, they gained upon him; at length the Endymion came within reach, and opened her fire. Commodore Decatur determined to engage her before the other vessels should come up. This he now did, and in a short time completely silenced her. By this time, the rest of the squadron had arrived; being unwilling to sacrifice his men in a useless contest, on receiving the fire of the nearest frigate, he surrendered. Commodore Decatur was taken on board the Endymion, and although she was only a wreck, he was required to surrender his sword to the officer of that vessel. To this the spirit of Decatur could not submit, and he indignantly refused to relinquish it to any one, but to the commander of the squadron.

The Cyane, a frigate of thirty-four guns, and the Levant, a sloop of eighteen thirty pound carronades, were taken by the Constitution about the same time.

The Peacock, Hornet, and Tom Bowline, left New-York a few days after the sailing of the President, without having heard

of her capture. On the 23d of January, the Hornet parted company, and directed her course towards Tristan d'Acuna the place of rendezvous. On the 23d of March, she descried the British brig Penguin, of eighteen guns and a twelve pound carronade, to the southward and eastward of the island. Captain Biddle hove to while the Penguin bore down. At forty minutes past one, the British brig opened her fire. After fifteen minutes the Penguin gradually neared the Hornet with an intention to board, the captain having given orders for that purpose. At this time, he was killed by a grape shot. Her lieutenant then bore her up, and running her bowsprit between the main and mizzen rigging of the Hornet, gave orders to board. His men, however, perceiving the crew of the Hornet ready to receive them, refused to follow him. At this moment the heavy swells of the sea lifted the Hornet ahead. The commander of the Penguin called out that he had surrendered, and Captain Biddle ordered his men to cease firing.

Immediately after this, an officer of the Hornet called to Captain Biddle, that a man in the enemy's shrouds was taking aim at him. Before he could change his position, a musket ball struck him in the neck, and wounded him severely. Two marines immediately levelled their pieces, and killed the wretch before he had brought his gun from his shoulder. The crew of the Hornet, indignant at this outrage, demanded to give the enemy a fresh broadside, and the vessel had nearly wore round for the purpose, before Captain Biddle could restrain the justly exasperated crew. The loss of the Penguin was fourteen in killed, and twenty-eight wounded. The Hornet had one killed and eleven wounded. The former vessel was so seriously injured, that Captain Biddle sunk her.

Section XLIX. The attention of congress during their session in the year 1815—1816 was called to a bill, which had for its object the incorporation of a National Bank. In the discussion which followed, much diversity of opinion was found to prevail, not only as to the constitutional power of congress to establish such an institution, but also as to the principle upon which it should be modelled. After weeks of animated debate, a bill incorporating the "*Bank of the United States*," with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars, passed, and

on Wednesday, April 10th, received the signature of the president.

Of the stock of the bank, seven millions were to be subscribed by the United States, the remaining twenty-eight by individuals. The affairs of the corporation were to be managed by twenty-five directors, five of whom were to be chosen by the president, with the advice and consent of the senate; the remainder to be elected by the stockholders, at the banking house in Philadelphia. The charter of the bank is to continue in force until the 3d of March, 1836.

L. The summer of 1816 passed away without being marked by any events of peculiar moment. The country appeared to be gradually recovering from the embarrassments induced by the war, and that asperity of feeling, which had agitated the different political parties in the United States, was visibly wearing away. Congress met in December. In the conclusion of his message at the opening of the session, Mr. Madison, anticipating the speedy arrival of the day, when he should retire from the presidency, took occasion to express his attachment for his country, and his wishes for her future peace and prosperity:

"I can indulge the proud reflection," said he, "that the American people have reached in safety and success, their fortieth year, as an independent nation; that for nearly an entire generation, they have had experience of their present constitution, the offspring of their undisturbed deliberations and of their free choice; that they have found it to bear the trials of adverse as well as prosperous circumstances, to contain in its combination of the federate and elective principles, a reconciliament of public strength with individual liberty, of national power, for the defence of national rights, with a security against wars of injustice, of ambition, or of vain glory, in the fundamental provision which subjects all questions of war to the will of the nation itself, which is to pay its costs, and feel its calamities. Nor is it less a peculiar felicity of this constitution, so dear to us all, that it is found to be capable, without losing its vital energies, of expanding itself over a spacious territory, with the increase

and expansion of the community, for whose benefit it was established."

Section LI. In December 1816, INDIANA became an independent state, and was received into the union.

Detached places in Indiana were settled by the French, upwards of a century ago. The exact period, at which the first settlement was made, is uncertain.

In 1763, the territory was ceded by France to England. By the treaty of Greenville in 1795, the United States obtained of the Indians several small grants of land within this territory and, in subsequent years, still more extensive tracts. During the war with England, which broke out in 1812, Indiana was the scene of many Indian depredations, and of many unusually severe battles, between the hostile tribes, and the troops of the United States. Until 1801, Indiana formed a part of the great north-western territory, but, at that date, it was erected into a territorial government, with the usual powers and privileges. In December 1815, the inhabitants amounting to sixty thousand, the legislature petitioned congress for admission into the union and the privilege of forming a state constitution. A bill for this purpose passed congress, in April 1816; a convention of delegates met in conformity to it, by which a constitution was adopted, and Indiana became an independent state, and a member of the union in December following.

Section LII. 1817. On Wednesday, February 12th, the votes for Mr. Madison's successor were counted in the presence of both houses of congress, when it appeared that James Monroe was elected president, and Daniel D. Tompkins vice-president of the United States, for the four years from and after the 4th of the ensuing March.

Notes.

Section LIII. **Manners.** The only noticeable change of manners, which seems to have taken place during this period, arose from the spirit of pecuniary *speculation*, which per-

vaded the country during the war. Money was borrowed with facility, and fortunes were often made in a day. Extravagance and profligacy were, to some extent, the consequence. The return of peace, and the extensive misfortunes which fell upon every part of the community, counteracted these vices, and restored more sober and industrious habits.

Section LIV. **Religion.** During this period, extensive revivals of religion prevailed, and liberal and expanded plans were devised and commenced for the promotion of christianity. Several theological institutions were founded, missionary and bible societies were established, and a great call for ministers of the gospel was heard.

Section LV. **Trade and Commerce.** During this period, trade and commerce were crippled by foreign restrictions, our own acts of non-intercourse, and, at length, by the war with England. During this war our carrying trade was destroyed, nor was it restored by the peace of 1815.

On the return of peace, immense importations were made from England, the country being destitute of English merchandise. The market was soon glutted, prices fell, and extensive bankruptcies were the consequence.

Section LVI. **Agriculture.** Agriculture, during this period, cannot be said to have made great advances.

An excessive disposition in the people, for trade and speculation, drew off the attention of the more intelligent and active part of the community, and directed much of the capital of the country to other objects. Upon the return of peace, however, when mercantile distresses overspread the land, agriculture was again resorted to, as one of the surest means of obtaining a livelihood. Men of capital, too, turned their attention to farming; agricul-

tural societies were established, in all parts of the country: more enlightened methods of culture were introduced, and agriculture became not only one of the most profitable, but one of the most popular objects of pursuit.

Section LVII. **Arts and Manufactures.** During the war which occurred in this period, the intercourse with England and other places, being stopped, the country was soon destitute of those articles which had been supplied by English manufactories. Accordingly, the people began to manufacture for themselves. Extensive manufacturing establishments were started for almost every sort of merchandise.—Such was their success at the outset, that an immense capital was soon invested in them, and the country began to be supplied with almost every species of manufacture from our own establishments. After the peace, the country being inundated with British goods, these establishments suffered the severest embarrassments, and many of them were entirely broken down. A considerable portion of them, however, were maintained, and continued to flourish.

Section LVIII. **Population.** At the expiration of Mr. Madison's term of office, in 1817, the number of inhabitants in the United States was about nine millions, five hundred thousand.

Section LIX. **Education.** The pecuniary embarrassments experienced throughout the country, during the latter part of this period, sensibly affected some institutions devoted to science and benevolence, especially those which depend, in part, upon the yearly contributions of the patrons of learning and religion, for the means of support. In several of the higher seminaries, the number of students was, for a

time, diminished. Nevertheless, parochial schools, academies, and colleges, upon the whole, continued to increase, and to qualify many for the common and higher professions of life.

A theological institution was established at Princeton, New-Jersey, in 1812, by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church. In 1821, the theological seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, in New-York, was united to that of Princeton, and its library, consisting of four thousand volumes, which cost seventeen thousand dollars, was transferred to the latter place. This seminary has three professors, and in 1821, had seventy-three students.

During the same year, Hamilton College was incorporated at Clinton, New-York; it has been liberally patronised by the legislature, and by individuals.

UNITED STATES.

Period XI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION,

Extending from the inauguration of President Monroe, 1817, *to the close of the year* 1822.

Section I. On the 4th of March, 1817, Mr. Monroe took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

The condition of the country, on the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, was in several respects more prosperous and happy, than on the accession of his predecessor. Not only had war ceased, and the political asperity, excited by it, given place to better feelings, but efforts were made in every section of the union, to revive those plans of business, which the war had nearly annihilated.—The country had suffered too much, however, to regain, immediately, its former prosperity. Commerce was far from being flourishing; a considerable part of the legitimate trade was in the hands of foreigners; many ships were lying unemployed, and the ship building in many ports had nearly ceased. The manufacturing establishments, which had not been entirely broken down, were sustaining a precarious existence. Foreign merchandise was inundating the country; and the specie, borrowed in Europe for the national bank, at an excessive premium, as well as that which was previously in the country, was rapidly leaving it to pay the balance of trade against us.* In his inaugural address, however, the president

* The Bank of the United States commenced the importation of specie in 1817, and introduced into the country seven millions, three hundred and eleven thousand, seven hundred and fifty dollars, at an expense of more than half a million of dollars. As fast as this specie arrived it was re-shipped to Europe, to pay the balance of trade against the United States, or sent to India or China to purchase merchandise. With this

HISTORY

of the

UNITED STATES

JAMES MONROE

INAUGURATED PRESIDENT

1817

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED FOR SUBSCRIBERS

1823

spoke in animating terms of the happy state of the country, and of its prospects of regaining, at no distant period, that measure of prosperity, which in former years it had enjoyed.

Section II. In the summer and autumn, following his inauguration, the president made a tour through the northern and eastern states of the union.

The objects of this tour were connected with the national interests. Congress had appropriated large sums of money for the fortification of the sea coast, and inland frontiers, for the establishment of naval docks, and for increasing the navy. The superintendence of these works belonged to the president. Solicitous to discharge his duty in reference to them with judgment, fidelity, and economy, he was induced to visit the most important points along the sea coast, and in the interior, from a conviction of being better able to direct in reference to them, with the knowledge derived from personal observation, than by means of information communicated to him by others. He left Washington on the 1st of June, accompanied by Gen. Joseph C. Swift, chief engineer of the United States, and his private secretary, Mr. Mason. Passing through Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York, New-Haven, Hartford, New-London, and Providence, he arrived in Boston, in which place and its vicinity, he spent several days.

On leaving Boston, he continued eastward to Portland, through Salem, Newburyport, and Portsmouth; and thence directed his course westward to Plattsburg, in the state of New-York. In his route thither, he passed through Dover, Concord, and Hanover, in New-Hampshire, and through Windsor, and Burlington, in Vermont. The important post of Plattsburg occupied his close attention for several days. From this latter place he continued westward, to Ogdensburg, Sackett's Harbour, and Detroit. Having now effected the leading objects of his tour, he commenced his return to the seat of government through the interior of Ohio. At the close of the day, Sept. 17th, he entered Washington, after having been absent more than three months,

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specie went a large portion of that which was in the country at the close of the war. The exportation of specie from the United States to China, alone, in three years, amounted to above seventeen millions of dollars.

Viz:—	
1816–17	$4,572,000
17–18	5,300,000
18–19	7,414,000
	$17,286,000

and having travelled three thousand miles. In the course of his tour, the president examined the various fortifications on the sea board, and in the interior, visited publick buildings and institutions, devoted to the purposes of literature, the arts, and general benevolence.—Although undesirous of attracting publick attention on a tour, whose object was the good of his country, he was met by a respectable deputation from the various places, through which it was understood he would pass, and in lively and patriotick addresses was welcomed to their hospitality.

Section III. Congress met on the 1st of December. In his message at the opening of the session, the president stated that the national credit was attaining a high elevation; that preparations for the defence of the country were progressing, under a well digested system; that arrangements had been made with Great Britain to reduce the naval force of the two countries on the western lakes, and that it was agreed that each country should keep possession of the islands which belonged to it before the war; and that the foreign relations of the country continued to be pacifick. The message concluded with recommending the surviving officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army to the special notice of congress, and the repeal of the internal duties, on the ground that the state of the treasury rendered their longer continuance unnecessary.

Section IV. On the 11th, the state of MISSISSIPPI was acknowledged by congress as sovereign and independent, and was admitted to the union.

The first European, who visited the present state of Mississippi, appears to have been Ferdinand de Soto, a native of Badajoz, in Spain, who landed on the coast of Florida on the 25th of May, 1539. He spent three years in the country searching for gold, but at length died, and was buried on the banks of the Mississippi, May, 1542.

In 1683, M. de Salle descended the Mississippi and gave the name of Louisiana to the country. In consequence of this, the

French claimed to have jurisdiction over it. In 1716, they formed a settlement at the Natchez, and built a fort, which they named Rosalie. Other settlements were effected in subsequent years. The French settlements were, however, seriously disturbed by the Indians, particularly by the Natchez, once the most powerful of all the southern tribes.

The French retained an acknowledged title to the country, on the east side of the Mississippi, until the treaty of 1763, when they ceded their possessions, east of that river, to the English. By the treaty of 1783, Great Britain relinquished the Floridas to Spain, without specifick boundaries; and at the same time, ceded to the United States all the country north of the thirty-first degree of latitude. The Spaniards retained possession of the Natchez and the ports north of the thirty-first degree, until 1798, when they finally abandoned them to the United States.

In the year 1800, the territory between the Mississippi and the western boundary of Georgia was erected into a distinct territorial government. By treaty in 1801, at fort Adams, the Choctaw Indians relinquished to the United States a large body of land, and other cessions have since been made. On the 1st of March, 1817, congress authorised the people of the western part of Mississippi territory to form a constitution and state government. A convention met in July, 1817, by which a constitution was formed, and in December following, Mississippi was admitted into the union as a separate state.

Section V. In the course of the same month, an expedition which had been set on foot by a number of adventurers, from different countries, against East and West Florida, was terminated by the troops of the United States. These adventurers claimed to be acting under the authority of some of the South American colonies, and had formed an establishment at Amelia Island, a Spanish province, then the subject of negotiation between the United States and Spain.—Their avowed object being an invasion of the Floridas, and of course an invasion of a part of the United States, the American government deemed itself authorized, without designing any hostility to Spain, to take possession of Amelia Island, their head quarters.

A similar establishment had previously been formed at Galvezton, a small island on the coast of the Texas, claimed by the United States. From both of these places privateers were fitted out, which greatly annoyed our regular commerce. Prizes were sent in, and by a pretended court of admiralty, condemned and sold. Slaves, in great numbers, were shipped through these Islands to the United States, and through the same channel extensive clandestine importations of goods were made. Justly apprehending the results of these establishments, if suffered to proceed unmolested, the executive took early measures to suppress them. Accordingly, a naval force, with the necessary troops, was despatched under command of Captains Henly and Bankhead, to whom Amelia Island was surrendered, on the 24th of December, without the effusion of blood. The suppression of Galvezton followed soon after.

Section VI. Several bills of importance passed congress, during their session, in the winter of 1817, 1818; a bill allowing to the members of the senate, and house of representatives, the sum of eight dollars per day, during their attendance; a second, in compliance with the recommendation of the president, abolishing the internal duties; and a third, providing, upon the same recommendation, for the indigent officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army.

The compensation bill, as it was called, excited much sensation throughout the nation, on the ground that the sum was unnecessarily enhanced, and gave occasion to long and animated debates on the floor of the house of representatives. By a portion of the representatives, strenuous efforts were made to fix the per diem allowance at six dollars, while others attempted to raise it to nine or ten. After a protracted discussion of the subject, it was fixed at eight dollars.

Against the repeal of the internal duties, few objections were urged. The recommendation of the president to repeal them was anticipated, and on taking the vote in the house of representatives, one hundred and sixty were found in favour of the bill, and but five voices against it.

In calling the attention of congress to the happy situation of the United States, the president, in his message, adverted with much sensibility, to the surviving officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, who, by their services had laid the foundation of American glory. Most of those who survived the

achievement of our independence, said he, have paid the debt of nature. Among the survivors there are some, who are reduced to indigence, and even to real distress. These men have a claim on the gratitude of their country, and it will do honour to their country to provide for them. The lapse of a few more years, and the opportunity will be lost forever, as they will all have gone to the grave. In compliance with this recommendation, a bill was introduced into congress, which, after some amendments, passed, granting to *indigent* officers of the revolutionary army the sum of twenty dollars, per month, during life, and of eight dollars, per month, during life, to *indigent* non-commissioned officers and privates.

Section VII. In April 1818; ILLINOIS adopted a state constitution, and in December following, was admitted as a member of the union.

Illinois derives its name from its principal river, which, in the language of the Indians, signifies *the river of men.* The first settlements, like those of Indiana, were made by the French, and were the consequence of the adventurous enterprises of M. de la Salle, in search of the Mississippi.—The first settlements were the villages of Kaskaskia and Cahokia. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the settlements of Illinois were represented to have been in a flourishing condition. But subsequently they in a great measure declined.

From the beginning to the middle of the eighteenth century, little was heard of the settlements of the French, on the banks of the Illinois. About 1749, the French began to fortify the Wabash and Illinois, in order to resist the British. In 1762, all the country to the east of the Mississippi was ceded to the latter power, and consequently Illinois passed under the British dominion. At the peace of 1783, Great Britain renounced its claims of sovereignty over this country, as well as over the United States. Virginia, however, and some other states, claimed the whole country, north and west of the Ohio; but at the instance of congress, a cession of these claims was made to the general government. Illinois remained a part of Indiana until 1809, when a distinct territorial government was established for it. In 1818, the people formed a constitution, and it is now one of the United States.

Section VII. Early after the conclusion of this session of congress, the president, in pursuance of his determination to visit such parts of the United States as were most exposed to the naval and military forces of an enemy, prepared

to survey the Chesapeake bay, and the country lying on its extensive shores.

In the month of May, he left Washington, accompanied by the secretary of war, and the secretary of the navy, with other gentlemen of distinction. On his arrival at Annapolis, the president and his suite minutely examined the waters contiguous, in reference to their fitness for a naval depot. Embarking at this place on board a vessel, he further examined the coast, and thence proceeded to Norfolk. Having at length accomplished the principal object of his tour, in the examination of the Chesapeake bay, he returned to Washington, June 17th, through the interior of Virginia. The respectful, and affectionate demonstrations of attachment, paid to him during his northern tour, were renewed in this.

Section IX. On the 27th of May, 1818, a treaty, concluded with Sweden, at Stockholm, on the 4th of September, 1816, by Mr. Russel, minister plenipotentiary to that court, was ratified by the president and senate, on the part of the United States. The same was ratified by the king of Sweden on the 24th of the following July.

This treaty provided for maintaining peace and friendship between the two countries—reciprocal liberty of commerce—equalization of duties, &c. &c. The treaty was to continue in force for eight years from the exchange of ratifications.

Section X. During the year 1818, a war was carried on between the Seminole Indians, and the United States, which terminated in the complete discomfiture of the former.

The history of this war is rendered the more interesting by the conspicuous part which the hero of New-Orleans bore in it, and the decisive, though novel measures which he adopted in prosecuting it.

The Indians, denominated Seminole Indians, inhabited a tract of country, partly within the limits of the United States, but a greater part of which lies within the boundaries of the Floridas. They originally consisted of fugitives from the northern tribes, resident within the limits of the United States. After the treaty of 1814 with the Creek Indians, a considerable addition was made to these fugitives from the Creeks, numbers of whom, being dissatisfied with the provisions of that treaty, withdrew to

the Seminoles, carrying with them feelings of hostility against the United States. These feelings seem to have been much strengthened by foreign emissaries, who had taken up their residence among them for the purposes of trade, among whom, as the most conspicuous, were two Englishmen, Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert C. Ambrister. Many outrages were perpetrated from time to time, by the Indians, upon the border inhabitants, and several murders, under aggravated circumstances, were committed. Moreover, with a demand by General Gaines, the United States' officer, in that quarter, to deliver up the offenders, the Indians refused to comply, alleging that the first and greatest aggressions had proceeded from the whites. In consequence of this refusal, Gen. Gaines was instructed, by the secretary of war, to remove, at his discretion, such Indians as were still on the lands ceded to the United States by the Creeks in 1814.

Pursuant to this discretionary authority, Gen. Gaines detached a party of near three hundred men, under command of Major Twiggs, to take an Indian village called Fowl Town, about fourteen miles from fort Scott, and near the Florida line. In executing this order, one man and one woman were killed, and two women made prisoners. A few days after, as a second detachment were on a visit to the Town, to obtain property, they were fired upon, and a skirmish ensued, in which several on both sides were killed and wounded. Shortly after this event, Lieutenant Scott, with a detachment of forty men, seven women, and some children, ascending the Appalachicola, with supplies for the garrison at Fort Scott, were attacked, and the whole party killed, excepting six men, who made their escape, and a woman who was taken prisoner.

From this time, the war became serious. The Indians, in considerable numbers, were embodied, and an open attack was made on Fort Scott, to which General Gaines with about six hundred regular soldiers was for a time confined. Information of this state of things being communicated to the department of war, General Jackson was ordered, Dec. 26, to take the field, and directed, if he should deem the force with General Gaines, amounting to one thousand and eight hundred men, insufficient to cope with the enemy, "to call on the executives of the adjacent states for such an additional militia force as he might deem requisite." On the receipt of this order, General Jackson prepared to comply; but instead of calling upon the executives of the neighbouring states, especially upon the governour of Tennessee, who lived near his residence, he addressed a circular to

the patriots of West Tennessee, inviting one thousand of them to join his standard.*

At the same time he wrote to the governour of Tennessee, M'Minn, informing him of the appeal he had made to the men whom he had led to victory on the plains of Talledega, Emuckfau, and Tohopeko, and added, "should the appeal prove inefficacious, I will embrace the earliest opportunity of making the requisition on you for a like number of drafted militia." The call of General Jackson was promptly obeyed, and the thousand volunteers, officered by the general,† or by the volunteers themselves, were ordered to Fort Scott.

Before taking up his march, he wrote, Jan. 12th, to the secretary of war, apprising him of the appeal he had made to the Tennesseeans, assigning as his reason for such a step, that he deemed the force with general Gaines, one thousand eight hundred, insufficient, and "that the greater portion of this number were drafted militia from Georgia, who might apply for their discharge at the expiration of three months from the time they were mustered," about the time he should probably reach Fort Scott. To this communication the secretary replied—"I have the honour to acquaint you of the entire approbation of the president, of all the measures which you have adopted to terminate the rupture with the Indians."

With these troops, and a number of friendly Creeks, under Gen M'Intosh, raised by General Gaines, Jackson entered upon the Seminole war.

As a considerable number of these Indians dwelt in Florida, it became necessary to pursue the enemy thither. Anticipating the necessity of this measure, the secretary of war issued an order to General Gaines, while he was in command, to pursue them into Florida if necessary, "and to attack them within its limits,

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* The apology offered by General Jackson for not calling upon the governour of Tennessee was, that at the time the order was issued, for him to take the field, the governour was either at Knoxville, or in the Cherokee nation; and that to have waited the result of the usual process of drafting, would have produced the two evils of much loss of valuable time, and the raising of a force reluctant in disposition, and inefficient in character and equipment.

† It has been denied that *General Jackson* appointed the officers of the volunteer corps. "It is true," however, says his defence, (see Niles' Register Vol. 16, p. 52.) "that he appealed to the officers who had gallantly fought with him in the wilderness of the Creek nation and on the plains of New Orleans, and again roused them to the defence of their frontiers. But their appointments to command were, in all cases, made by the choice of the men whom they (the officers to whom General Jackson had appealed) brought into the field."

unless they should shelter themselves under a Spanish fort. In this last event you will immediately notify this department."

Deeming it necessary for the subjugation of the Seminoles, to enter Florida, General Jackson marched upon St. Marks, a feeble Spanish garrison, in which some Indians had taken refuge. Of this garrison, General Jackson quietly took possession, and occupied it as an American post.* At St. Marks was found Alexander Arbuthnot, who was taken prisoner, and put in confinement. At the same time were taken two Indian chiefs, one of whom pretended to possess the spirit of prophecy; they were hung without trial.† St. Marks being garrisoned by American troops, the army marched to Suwaney river, on which they found a large Indian village, which was consumed, after which the army returned to St. Marks, bringing with them Robert C. Ambrister, who had been taken prisoner on their march to Suwaney. During the halt of the army for a few days at St. Marks, a general court martial was called, upon whose result, General Jackson issued the following general order. "At a special court martial, commenced on the 26th instant at St. Marks, and continued until the night of the 28th, of which brevet Major-General E. P. Gaines was president, was tried A. Arbuthnot, on the following charges and specifications, viz:

Charge 1st, Exciting and stirring up the Creek Indians to war against the United States and her citizens, he, A. Arbuthnot, being a subject of Great Britain, with whom the United States are at peace.

Charge 2d, Acting as a spy; aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war.

Charge 3d, Exciting the Indians to murder and destroy William Hambly and Edmund Doyle, confiscate their property,

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* This disobedience of the orders which had been given to General Gaines, not to attack a Spanish fort, but to notify the secretary of war, should any Indians take shelter under one, was defended by General Jackson, on the ground, that orders issued to one officer could not be construed as orders to his successor without a *special* reference to the first:—that his orders were *general* and *discretionary*:—and that the circumstances contemplated by the orders to General Gaines never existed. The Indians not being found *under the guns* of a Spanish fort, but *sheltered within its walls*.

† In the defence of General Jackson, already aluded to, it is stated that Francis, the prophet, had long been a dire and dangerous foe to the United States, that he had a brigadier's commission from Great Britain, and by his superstitious influence instigated his brethren to deeds of rapine and massacre. The other chief had headed the party, who, in cold blood, murdered Scott and his unhappy companions, while ascending the Appalachicola. These considerations the General deemed sufficient to justify the summary course, adopted in respect to them.

and causing their arrest, with a view to their condemnation to death, and the seizure of their property, they being citizens of Spain, on account of their active and zealous exertions to maintain peace between Spain, the United States, and the Indians.

To which charges the prisoner pleaded not guilty.

The court, after mature deliberation on the evidence adduced, find the prisoner, A. Arbuthnot, guilty of the first charge, and guilty of the second charge, leaving out the words "acting as a spy;" and after mature reflection, sentence him, A. Arbuthnot, to *be suspended by the neck*, until he is *dead*.

Was also tried, Robert C. Ambrister, on the following charges, viz.

Charge 1st, Aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war, he being a subject of Great Britain, who are at peace with the United States, and late an officer in the British colonial marines.

Charge 2d, Leading and commanding the lower Creek Indians in carrying on a war against the United States.

To which charges the prisoner pleaded as follows: to the first charge not guilty, to the second charge guilty, and justification."

"The court, on examination of evidence, and on mature deliberation, find the prisoner, Robert C. Ambrister, guilty of the first and second charges, and do therefore sentence him to suffer *death* by being *shot*. The members requesting a reconsideration of the vote on this sentence, and it being had, they sentence the prisoner to receive fifty stripes on his bare back, and be confined with a ball and chain, to hard labour for twelve calendar months. The commanding general approves the finding and sentence of the court, in the case of A. Arbuthnot, and approves the finding and *first* sentence of the court, in the case of Robert C. Ambrister, and disapproves the reconsideration of the sentence of the honourable court in this case.

"It appears from the evidence and pleading of the prisoner, that he did lead and command within the territory of Spain, (being a subject of Great Britain,) the Indians in war against the United States, those nations being at peace. It is an established principle of the laws of nations, that any individual of a nation, making war against the citizens of any other nation, they being at peace, forfeits his allegiance, and becomes an outlaw and pirate. This is the case of Robert C. Ambrister, clearly shown by the evidence adduced.

"The commanding general orders that brevet Major A. C. D. Fanning, of the corps of artillery, will have between the hours of eight and nine o'clock, A. M. A. Arbuthnot suspended by

the neck with a rope, until he is *dead*, and Robert C. Ambrister to be shot to *death*, agreeably to the sentence of the court."

From St. Marks, General Jackson addressed communications to the secretary of war, informing him that the Indian forces had been divided and scattered, and that his presence in that country could be no longer necessary; and that he should soon leave St. Marks for Fort Gadsden, where, after making all necessary arrangements to scour the country, he should retire. Information, however, was given him, some days after, that the governour of Pensacola was favouring the Indians. On learning this, General Jackson, with his forces, took up his march for the capital of that province, before which, after a march of twenty days, he appeared. This place was taken with scarce the show of resistance.—The governour had escaped to Barancas, a fort six miles distant, to which place the army soon marched. The fortress was invested on the 25th of May, and a demand being made for its surrender, and refused, an attack upon it was made, both by sea and land, and, after a bombardment and cannonading of the place, for two days, the garrison surrendered, as prisoners of war, and the officers of the government, civil and military, were transported, agreeably to the terms of capitulation, to Havana. A new government was established for the province, the powers of which were vested partly in military officers, and partly in citizens of the province. General Jackson now announced to the secretary that the Seminole war was closed, and returned to his residence at Nashville. Some time after, the American executive, deeming the longer possession of the Spanish forts unnecessary to the peace of the country, and inconsistent with good faith to Spain, directed them to be restored, and accompanied the restoration with the reasons which had led to their occupation.

The measures adopted by General Jackson in the prosecution of this war—particularly his appeal to the people of West Tennessee—his conduct in relation to the trial and execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister—and his occupation of St. Marks and Pensacola—excited strong sensations in the bosoms of a considerable portion of the American people. During the session of congress in the winter of 1818—1819, these subjects were extensively and eloquently debated. By the military committee of the house, a report was presented censuring the conduct of General Jackson; but, after an elaborate examination of the case, the house, by a majority of one hundred and eight, to sixty-two, refused its concurrence. Towards the close of the session a report unfavourable to General Jackson, was also brought forward in the senate, but no vote of censure or resolution was attached, and no discussion of its merits was had.

Section XI. On the 28th of January, 1819, a convention between Great Britain and the United States, concluded at London, October 20th, 1818, and ratified by the Prince Regent on the 2d of November following, was ratified by the president of the United States.

By the first article of this convention, the citizens of the United States have liberty, in common with the subjects of Great Britain, to take fish on the southern, western, and northern coasts of Newfoundland, &c. The second article establishes the northern boundaries of the United States from the Lake of the Woods, to the Stoney Mountains. By the fourth article, the commercial convention between the two countries, concluded at London, in 1815, is extended for the term of ten years longer, &c &c.

Section XII. On the 22d of February, following, a treaty was concluded at Washington, by John Quincy Adams, and Luis de Onis, by which East and West Florida, with all the Islands adjacent, &c. were ceded by Spain to the United States.

By this treaty the western boundary between the United States and Spain was settled. A sum not exceeding five millions of dollars is to be paid by the United States out of the proceeds of sales of lands in Florida, or in stock, or money, to citizens of the United States, on account of Spanish spoliations and injuries. To liquidate the claims, a board was to be constituted by the government of the United States, of American citizens, to consist of three commissioners, who should report within three years.

Such were the essential provisions of the above treaty, which was ratified by the president and senate on the 24th. Under a full confidence that it would, within six months, the time stipulated, be ratified by his Catholick Majesty. His majesty, however, declined the ratification, on the ground that the American government had attempted to alter one of the principal articles of the treaty by a declaration, which the minister of the United States had been ordered to present, on the exchange of ratifications; and also on the ground that the government of the United States had recently tolerated or protected an expedition from the United States against the province of Texas.

In a message to congress, the president satisfactorily explained these subjects, and submitted to their consideration whether it

would not be proper for the United States to carry the treaty into effect on her part, in the same manner as if it had been ratified by Spain, claiming on their part all its advantage, and yielding to Spain those secured by her. A bill, authorizing the president to take possession of Florida, was introduced into the house, but the subject was postponed to the consideration of the next congress. In October, 1820, the king of Spain gave the treaty his signature. On the 19th of February following, 1821, the president, with the advice of the senate, finally ratified the treaty. Formal possession of the territory was given to General Jackson, as the commissioner of the United States, in the month of July following.

Section XIII. On the 2d of March, 1819, the government of the ARKANSAS Territory was organized by act of congress.

The earliest settlement, within the limits of the territory of Arkansas, was made by the Chevalier de Tonte, in 1685, at the Indian village of Arkansas, situated on the river of that name. Emigrants from Canada afterwards arrived, but the progress of settlement was slow. Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the ceded territory was divided into two parts, *the territory of Orleans*, lying south of latitude thirty degrees and the *district of Louisiana*, comprehending all the tract of country between the Mississippi and the Pacifick Ocean. In March, 1805, the latter country was denominated the Territory of Louisiana. In 1812, this territory was constituted a territorial government, by the name of the Territory of Missouri. In March, 1819, the inhabitants of the northern parts were formed into a distinct district, by the name of Missouri, and soon after the southern was formed into a territorial government by the name of Arkansas. In December, 1819, an election for a delegate to congress was held for the first time.

Section XIV. During the following summer, 1819, the president visited the southern section of the country, having in view the same great national interests, which had prompted him in his previous tour to the north.

In this tour the president visited Charleston, Savannah, and Augusta; from this latter place he proceeded to Nashville, through the Cherokee nation, and thence to Louisville and Lexington, Kentucky, whence he returned to the seat of government, early in August.

Section XV. On the 14th of December fol-

lowing, a resolution passed congress admitting ALABAMA into the union, on an equal footing with the original states.

Alabama, though recently settled, appears to have been visited by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1539. Some scattered settlements were made within the present state of Mississippi before the American revolution, but Alabama continued the hunting ground of savages, until a much later period.

After the peace of 1783, Georgia laid claim to this territory, and exercised jurisdiction over it, until the beginning of the present century. In 1795, an act passed the legislature of Georgia, by which twenty-five millions of acres, of its *western territory*, were sold to companies for five hundred thousand dollars, and the purchase money was paid into their treasury. The purchasers of these lands soon after sold them at advanced prices. The sale of the territory excited a warm opposition in Georgia, and at a subsequent meeting of the legislature, the transaction was impeached, on the ground of bribery, corruption, and unconstitutionality. The records respecting the sale were ordered to be *burnt*, and the five hundred thousand dollars to be refunded to the purchasers. Those who had acquired titles of the original purchasers instituted suits in the federal courts.

In 1802, however, Georgia ceded to the United States all her western territory, for one million, two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. On this event, the purchasers of the Yazoo land petitioned congress for redress and compensation. After considerable opposition, an act passed for reimbursing them with funded stock, called the Mississippi stock. In 1800, the territory which now forms the states of Mississippi and Alabama, was erected into a territorial government. In 1817, Mississippi territory was divided and the western portion of it was authorized to form a state constitution. The eastern portion was then formed into a territorial government and received the name of Alabama. In July, 1819, a convention of delegates met at Huntsville, and adopted a state constitution, which being approved by congress in December following, the state was declared to be henceforth one of the United States.

Section XVI. In the ensuing year, March 3d 1820, MAINE became an independant state, and a member of the federal union.

The separation of the District of Maine from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, had been frequently attempted without success. In October, 1785, a convention met at Portland, for the purpose of considering this subject. In the

succeeding year, the question was submitted to the people of Maine, to be decided in town meetings, when it was found that a majority of freemen were against the measure. The subject was renewed in 1802, when a majority appeared averse to a separation. In 1819, an act passed the general court of Massachusetts, for ascertaining the wishes of the people; in conformity to which, a vote was taken in all the towns. A large majority were found in favour of a separation. A convention was called, and a constitution adopted, which being approved, Massachusetts and Maine amicably separated, the latter taking her proper rank, as one of the United States.

Section XVII. On the 3d of March, 1821, the 16th congress closed its second session. Few subjects of importance were discussed, and but little done for the advancement of publick interest, or the promotion of private prosperity. Acts were passed to admit Missouri into the union conditionally; to reduce the military peace establishment to four regiments of artillery, and seven regiments of infantry, with their proper officers; and to carry into further execution the provisions of treaties with Spain and Great Britain.

Section XVIII. On the 5th, Mr. Monroe, who had been re-elected to the presidency, took the usual oath of office. The re-election of Monroe was nearly unanimous. Mr. Tompkins was again elected vice-president.

Section XIX. August 10th, 1821, the president, by his proclamation, declared MISSOURI to be an independent state, and that it was admitted into the federal union.

The first permanent settlements, in Missouri, appear to have been made at St. Genevieve and New-Bourbon, which were founded soon after the peace of 1663. In the succeeding year, St. Louis, the capital of the state, was commenced. In 1762, Louisiana, and Missouri of course, were secretly ceded by France to Spain; but the latter did not attempt to take possession of the country until some years after.

Missouri remained in possession of Spain, through the war of

the revolution, until the cession of Louisiana to France, in 1801, by which latter power it was ceded to the United States, in 1803.

Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the district, which now forms the *state of Louisiana*, was separated from the territory, and made a distinct government, by the name of the *territory of Orleans*. In 1811, the territory of Orleans became a state, by the name of *Louisiana*. The remaining part of the original province of Louisiana, extending to the Pacifick, was erected into a territorial government, and called *Missouri*. In 1818-19, application was made to congress by the people of this territory, to form a state constitution. A bill was accordingly introduced, for the purpose, a provision of which forbade slavery or involuntary servitude. The bill with this provision passed the house of representatives, but was rejected in the senate, and, in consequence of this disagreement, the measure, for the time, failed. In the session of 1819-20, the bill was revived; and, after long and animated debates, a compromise was effected, by which slavery was to be tolerated in Missouri, and forbidden in all that part of Louisiana, as ceded by France, lying north of 36° 30′ north latitude, except so much as was included within the limits of the state. In the mean time the people of Missouri had formed a state constitution. When this constitution was presented to congress, in 1820-21, a provision in it, which required the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mullattoes from coming to, and settling in the state," was strenuously opposed, on the ground that it violated the rights of such persons of that description, as were citizens of any of the United States. The contest occupied a great part of the session, and it was finally determined, by a small majority, that Missouri should be admitted, upon the fundamental condition, that the contested clause should not be construed to authorize the passage of any laws, excluding citizens of other states from enjoying the privileges to which they are entitled, by the constitution of the United States. It was also provided, that if the legislature of Missouri should, by a solemn publick act, previously to the 4th Monday of November, 1821, declare the assent of the state to this fundamental condition, the president should issue his proclamation, declaring the admission complete. On the 24th of June, 1821, the legislature of Missouri assented to the fundamental condition; and, on the 10th of August following, the president's proclamation was issued, declaring the admission complete.*

* American Atlas—Philadelphia.

Section XX. The first session of the seventeenth congress commenced on the 3d of December. The affairs of the nation were generally prosperous, and there seemed to be no obstacle in the way of wise and prudent measures. A spirit of jealously, however, obtruded itself upon their deliberations, by which some beneficial measures were defeated, and the business of the session was unnecessarily delayed and neglected. Several acts of importance, however, were passed, concerning navigation and commerce;—relieving still further the indigent veterans of the revolution;—and fixing the ratio, between population and representation, at one representative for every forty thousand inhabitants.

The constitution has not limited the number, but has only provided that no more than *one* shall be sent for thirty thousand inhabitants. Publick opinion seems generally to have decided that a numerous representation is an evil, by which not only the business of the nation is neglected, in the conflicts of individual opinions, but the people are subjected to an unnecessary expense. The congress that signed the Declaration of Independence consisted but of fifty-six members; and no diliberative assembly excelled them, in industry and publick virtue. The congress that formed the confederation consisted of forty-eight; that which formed the constitution consisted of only thirty-nine, and the first congress under that constitution, of but sixty-five. After the first census, the appointment being one for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants, the house consisted of one hundred and five representatives. The same apportionment being continued under the second census, there were one hundred and forty-one representatives.—The apportionment, under the third census, allowed one for thirty-five thousand; and the house consisted of one hundred and eighty-seven members. The ratio fixed upon, by the present congress, is one for forty thousand; and the number of representatives is two hundred and twelve.

Section XXI. During the above session of congress, March 31, 1822, a territorial government was established for FLORIDA.

The name of Florida was formerly given to an immense re-

gion of country, discovered by Cabot, in 1497. The first visitant to the actual territory of Florida was Ponce de Leon, who landed on Easter day, 1512. Navigators, from several countries, visited it, and various European sovereigns attempted to appropriate the country to themselves.

Spain, however, held possession of it until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. In May, 1781, Don Galvez captured Pensacola, and, soon afterwards, completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain, until 1783, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida to Spain.

By the treaty of France, in 1803, which ceded Louisiana to the United States, it was declared to be ceded, with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, when ceded to France. By virtue of this declaration, the United States claimed the country west of the Perdido river, and, in 1811, took possession of it, except the town and fort of Mobile, which were surrendered the following year. In 1814, a British expedition having been fitted out against the United States, from Pensacola, General Jackson took possession of the town; but, having no authority to hold it, returned to Mobile. The Seminole Indians, with whom the United States were at war, residing partly within the limits of Florida, and making their incursions thence without restraint from the Spaniards, it became necessary to cross the territorial line, to chastise them. Subsequently, General Jackson took possession of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola, which the American troops held till November, 1818, when they were restored to Spain. In 1819, a transfer of the whole province was made, by treaty, to the United States, and, after many vexatious delays, the treaty was ratified, by Spain, in October 1820, and, finally, by the United States, in the month of February, 1821. Possession was delivered to General Jackson, as commissioner of the United States, in July, 1821.

Section XXII. The second session of the seventeenth congress commenced at Washington, on the 2d of December. In his message, at the opening of the session, the president informed congress that, in June, a convention of navigation and commerce, resting essentially on a basis of reciprocal and equal advantage to the two countries, had been concluded between France and the United States;—that the prohibition, which had been imposed on the commerce,

between the United States and the British colonies, in the West Indies and on this continent, had been removed, and that the ports of those colonies had been opened to the vessels of the United States, by an act of the British parliament.

In a second message, a few days subsequently, the president introduced to the notice of congress the interesting subject of the "multiplied outrages and depredations, recently committed on our seamen and commerce, by *Pirates*, in the West Indies and Gulf of Mexico," and recommended the immediate organization of an efficient force to suppress them. A bill was accordingly introduced, authorizing the president to provide such a force, and to despatch it immediately to the protection of our persecuted seamen.

The president had mentioned the subject of piracy, in his first message; but he was prompted early after to make it the subject of a special communication, in consequence of intelligence that captain Allen, of the Alligator, a brave and meritorious officer, had fallen in the neighbourhood of Matanzas, by the hands of these ruthless barbarians, while attempting, in discharge of his duty, to rescue an unprotected merchant ship, which had fallen into their power. Immediately after the passage of the above bill, Commodore Porter was appointed to this service, and, soon after, hoisting his broad pendant on board the Peacock, stretched his way, with a respectable force, to chastise these miscreants, that regard no law, and that feel no mercy.

Notes.

EMBRACING A SKETCH OF THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Section XXIII. **Manners.** Two centuries have elapsed, since the first settlements were commenced in the United States, by Eu-

ropeans, yet the people have not acquired that uniform character, which belongs to ancient nations, upon whom time, and the stability of institutions have imprinted a particular and individual character. Although partial changes have occurred, which have been noticed in the progress of this work, yet so far down as the present time, the *essential* variations, which have taken place, are few. The general physiognomy is nearly as varied as the origin of the population is different. English, Irish, German, Scotch, French, and Swiss, all retain something of the first stamp, which belongs to their ancient country. The original roughness and severity of the first settlers are, indeed, lost, and a degree of softness and pliancy, more congenial with an improved state of society, has generally obtained.

A marked distinction undoubtedly exists between the inhabitants of the commercial and maritime towns, and the villages of the country. The former in a more considerable degree, as to luxury and vice, resemble the great towns of Europe. Those of the country, who lead an agricultural life, preserve much of the simplicity, with something of the roughness of former days; but they enjoy all that happiness which proceeds from the exercise of the social virtues, in their primitive purity. Their affections are constant; felicity crowns the conjugal union; parental authority is sacred; infidelity on the part of the wife is almost unknown; crime is rare, mendicity and theft uncommon.

The people generally are enterprising, industrious, persevering, and submissive to government. They are also intelligent, brave, active, and benevolent, and possess a strength and agility of body, which are seldom united in so great a degree. With somewhat of the appearance of apathy, and under a sober exterior, strong feelings and a capacity for the most lively sallies are concealed. As the benefits of education are extensively diffused, the ingenuity and intelligence of the people have been displayed to advantage, if not in the higher walks of literature, yet in the useful branches of knowledge, and in the arts which multiply the comforts of life.

From the perfect freedom and equality which are possessed,

but the barrier created by education will, it is hoped, keep in check the unwelcome tide. In the amusements of the people, there are evidently some changes for the better, indicating more correct ideas both of humanity and taste. Upon the whole, the manners of the people of the United States, especially among the more cultivated classes, are, probably, a medium, between an honest bluntness, on the one hand, and a sickly delicacy, on the other, or between a low and the highest degree of refinement. The latter, indeed, is not to be expected in a country where there is no court, and no hereditary nobility, whose leisure and inclination might lead them to substitute the affected and burdensome politeness of courtiers, for the present manly ease of freemen.

Section XXIV. **Religion.** The principal religious denominations, at present, in the United States, are Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, Baptists, Friends, Episcopalians, and Methodists. The two first of these, unitedly, have more than twenty-five hundred congregations; the number of Baptist congregations exceeds two thousand; the Friends have five hundred, and the Episcopalians about three hundred. The Methodists also are numerous.

For the effectual employment of those who wish to be engaged in the christian ministry and in missions, peculiar facilities have been devised; and the plans of benevolence, mentioned under the last period, have been continued and greatly augmented. The American Board of Commissioners for foreign Missions, the American Bible Society, the American Education Society, together with a Society for the colonization of free blacks in Africa, have risen in respectability and resources. Missionaries in considerable numbers are sent, not only into vacant and destitute parts of our own country, to the South and West, and among the Indians; but also to Southern Asia, to Palestine, and to the Islands of the Pacifick Ocean.

It is not to be disguised that much irreligion and vice, and some opposition to the above named objects prevails, and that a spirit of infidelity exists, though in a form more concealed than formerly, and under more decent names. Nor does it become us to deny, that in a time of so much religious action and religious news, by which attention is occupied, there is danger of a superficial acquaintance with the doctrines of the Bible, among the mass of professors. Yet, whatever may be the danger from this source, we are persuaded that such exertions,

and the interest taken in political discussions, a tendency to dissoluteness in our manners is undoubtedly to be perceived; since they are altogether congenial with the precepts of the gospel, will in the end produce a vastly counterbalancing good. The exigencies of the church, and of the times, require precisely such a spirit of benevolent enterprise, to be increased, we trust with the growth of the nation.

The attention, which is now paid to biblical learning, and to a more systematick instruction in theology, by those who are to become Christian teachers, forms an era in the history of religion, in this country. This will be a means in due time, of counteracting that tendency to religious dissipation, and to a superficial doctrinal knowledge, among professing christians, which have been mentioned. Indeed, the good consequences of such preparatory studies begin to be felt in other respects, at least; and the call for a learned and efficient, as well as a pious ministry is doubly increasing. Morality, which is a component part of religion, has taken deep root, and the increased means of christian instruction just noticed, and forms a striking contrast to the effects, which proceed from a dearth of the spirit and of the word of God, in less favoured parts of the country. It is worthy of notice, also, that some vigorous attempts have been made, by means of the association of individuals, in various places, to prevent the progress of vice, and, of course, to promote the interests of christian virtue. Intemperance, which is the most alarming symptom of the times, has, by this means, received a partial, though, it must be confessed, inadequate restraint.

Section XXV. Trade and Commerce.

The commerce of the United States consists, principally, in the exchange of agricultural produce for the manufactures of other parts of the world, and the productions of the tropical climates. The principal articles of domestic produce, exported, are cotton, wheat flour, biscuit, tobacco, lumber, rice, pot and pearl ashes, Indian corn, and meal, dried and pickled fish, beef, rye, pork, &c.

Of these, cotton* is the most considerable article, and has in-

* The greater attention to the cultivation of cotton is to be ascribed to the invention of a machine for cleaning upland cotton, from its seeds. For this machine we are indebted to Mr Whitney, of New Haven, Connec-

creased, regularly, from one hundred thousand pounds, the amount exported in 1790, to more than eighty-five millions of pounds, exported in 1817. It now constitutes one third of the whole value of our exports, or about twenty millions of dollars. Next to cotton, wheat, flour, and biscuit, are exported in the greatest quantities.—Tobacco and rice are on the decline, the attention of planters being directed to the more profitable cultivation of cotton.

Of these exports, New-England and New-York are the great carriers. To them belong nearly two thirds of all the shipping of the United States. The states south of the Potomac own only one eighth part. Our staple articles are principally the growth of the southern states, and are carried coast wise, from the southern to the middle states, whence they are sent to foreign countries, almost entirely, in ships owned by northern merchants, and navigated by northern seamen. In 1820, there were about seventy thousand persons, in the United States, engaged in commerce, of which thirteen thousand, or nearly one sixth, belonged to Massachusetts alone. Nearly half of the whole number belonged to the New-England States, and New-York.

The exports from the United States are sent to various countries, but the British dominions always receive the largest portion of our domestick produce, particularly cotton. The Spanish, Portuguese, and French dominions have usually received the most, next to the British. During the period in which the United States enjoyed the carrying trade, that is from 1796 to 1807, when the wars, which succeeded the French revolution, existed, and during which the United States was the principal neutral power, the nations for which she carried embraced nearly all Europe; but those for which she carried the most were the Dutch, French, and Spaniards. Since the return of peace, in 1815, the nations of Europe have been chiefly their own carriers. Of course, the foreign produce, exported from this country, has been small, compared with its amount from 1802 to 1812. In the year ending the 30th of September 1822, the total value of exports from the United States was seventy-two mil-

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ticut. Before the invention of this machine, it was so difficult to cleanse cotton, that the cultivation of it was extremely limited. It is now cultivated, to great extent, in the states south of Virginia, and Kentucky. The wheat and flour exported are raised, principally, in the middle and western states; tobacco in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina; lumber is chiefly from the forests of Maine, New Hampshire, and the low countries of the Carolinas and Georgia. Rice is mostly raised in the Carolinas, Georgia, and Louisiana, &c.

lions, one hundred and sixty thousand, two hundred and eighty-one dollars. Of this sum, but about twenty-two millions were foreign exports, leaving nearly fifty millions for domestick exports. Almost half of the domestick exports were sent to England, Scotland, and Ireland. During the same year, the total value of imports was eighty-three millions, two hundred and forty-one thousand, five hundred and forty-one dollars, of which thirty-two millions were from England alone.

The goods received, in return for exports, are, generally, the manufactures of those countries to which the exports are carried. From Great Britain are imported vast quantities of woollen and cotton goods, and manufactures of iron, steel, brass, copper, glass, earthen ware, silk, &c. From China we receive tea and silk; from Russia iron and hemp. Coffee comes from the colonies of the European powers in America, and the East Indies; sugar from the East and West Indies; rum from the British and Danish West Indies. Wines are, principally, from France, Spain, Portugal, Madeira, and the Canary Isles, brandy from France, Spain, Italy, &c. Notwithstanding the large amount of cotton, tobacco, lumber, &c. sent to Great Britain, yet the balance with that country is, and always has been against us. It is also against us in respect to China, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and France, because these countries, from which we import largely, have occasion for very little of our surplus produce.

As to the tonnage of the United States, it may be observed, that it annually increased from 1790, at which time it was nearly half a million, to the year 1810, when it arrived at its maximum, and amounted to more than one million and four hundred thousand tons; an amount far greater than that of any other nation in the world, except Great Britain. In 1819, the tonnage employed in the coasting trade amounted to nearly six hundred thousand tons, having increased in thirty years more than five fold.

The tonnage employed in the fisheries has not progressed, with the same rapidity. During the revolutionary war, the fisheries were destroyed, and, for many years afterwards they did not regain their original importance. To encourage them, congress, in 1792, granted a bounty to the owners and seamen employed in the bank, or cod fisheries, and, in 1814, this bounty was considerably increased. During the late war, our fishermen suffered heavy losses, but, since the return of peace, they have resumed their occupations, and the fisheries are now in a more flourishing state than they have been at any period since the declaration of our independence. In 1818, there belonged to New Bedford and Nantucket seventy-two vessels, engaged in

the whale fishery, whose aggregate tonnage was about seventeen thousand tons. This number has since increased. Massachusetts is the principal state concerned in this fishery. No state south of New-York ever owned a single vessel employed in the whale fishery.

Nearly connected with commerce is the revenue of the country. This has almost entirely arisen, ever since the establishment of the present government, from duties paid on tonnage, and on foreign goods imported into the United States. Internal duties and direct taxes have, occasionally, been resorted to, as was the case during the administration of Mr. Adams, and during the late war, but upon these, the government ordinarily place no dependence. Several millions of dollars are annually received from the sale of publick lands, and the sum is yearly increasing. In 1815, the revenue was much greater than it had been at any former period, owing to the immense importations of foreign goods into the country. It continued to decrease, however, until 1821, since which time it has been again slowly rising. It may now be estimated in ordinary years, at about twenty millions of dollars.

It will not be foreign to this article to add as few remark upon the publick debt. This debt was contracted in support of the war of independence. In 1791, it amounted to about seventy-five millions of dollars. From this date to the year 1812, owing to the great prosperity of the country, the debt was gradually diminished to about one half. But, on the recurrence of war, it again increased, and, in 1816, amounted to one hundred and twenty-three millions. It has been since diminishing, and, on the first of January, 1823, was about ninety millions of dollars.

Section XXVI. **Agriculture.** Until within a few years, agriculture, as a science, received but little attention, in the United States. Few, if any, valuable improvements were attempted. Indifference and uncommon apathy seem to have pervaded society. A new era, however, has recently commenced, and agriculture, both as a science and an art, is receiving much of that attention which its acknowledged importance demands. It is beginning to be regarded, as it should be, not only as the basis of subsistence

and population, but as the parent of individual and national opulence.

Men of enlightened minds, and of distinguished wealth, are, in many parts of the country, devoting themselves to the study of the art, and to new and useful experiments. Agricultural societies abound; at the head of which may be seen some of the most scientifick and practical men, combining their powers in favour of agriculture, for the collection and diffusion of information, and for the excitement of industry and emulation. The exhibitions which annually take place, in almost every county, of cattle, and of the productions of the soil, the learned and often eloquent addresses, which these exhibitions call forth, have a strong tendency to awaken the attention of our countrymen to a pursuit more favourable to health, virtue, and peace, than any other.

The proportion of the inhabitants of the United States, devoted to agricultural pursuits, is large. By the census of 1820, it appears, that this proportion is more than one fifth of the whole population, or two millions. This number includes only those who are thus engaged by actual occupation, children and females generally being excluded. It embraces, therefore, about two thirds of all the males over ten years of age. The slave holding states are the most agricultural, the proportion being usually from one quarter to one third of the whole population, while in the other states it generally falls below one fifth.

Of the several states, New-York has the greatest number engaged in agriculture; Virginia next; and next to those states, North Carolina, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, and Georgia, in order. But the proportion of those devoted to agriculture, in the respective states, to their population, is different. Louisiana has the greatest proportion, or about thirty-five per cent.; South Carolina has thirty-two; Georgia and Mississippi, each twenty-nine; North Carolina twenty-seven; while New-York has but eighteen, and Pennsylvania but thirteen per cent. No state in the union has so small a proportion as Massachusetts

Section XXVII. **Arts and Manufactures.** The manufacturing establishments in the United States are considerably various and numerous; and though less prosperous than during the late war, are gradually rising from the depression which they experienced immediately after the return of peace, in consequence of the excessive importations of foreign goods, which were then made.

By the friends of these establishments vigorous efforts are making to induce congress to increase the duties on certain articles, now extensively imported, with reference to their being manufactured at home, and thereby giving more encouragement to those of our citizens who have invested their capital in establishments of this kind. A strong opposition, however, to an increase of the duties on foreign goods has appeared, particularly in the south, on the ground that to foster manufacturing establishments, considerably beyond the encouragement given them by the existing tariff, must be at the expense of commerce, revenue, and general prosperity. What will be the issue of the above efforts, time only will disclose.

The number of persons employed in manufactures in the United States, as appears by the census of 1820, is three hundred and forty-nine thousand, two hundred and forty-seven. Rhode-Island has a greater proportion of population engaged in manufactures than any other state, and next in order are Massachusetts and Connecticut. Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, also, rank high as manufacturing states.

Section XXVIII. **Population.** The population of the United States in 1820, was nine millions, six hundred and thirty-seven thousand, nine hundred and ninety-nine; of whom one million, five hundred and thirty-one thousand, four hundred and thirty-six were slaves, and two hundred and thirty-three thousand, three hundred and ninety-eight were free blacks.

The number of foreigners who arrive in the country is, upon an average, about five or six thousand annually. About this number, however is supposed to emigrate to the British provinces. The natural increase of the population is estimated at about three hundred thousand. The population of the United

States may now, therefore, (close of the year 1822,) be considered as exceeding ten millions.

The following observations, respecting the population of the country, have been found to be true by a late respectable writer.* 1. That the inhabitants of the United States double in about twenty-five years. 2. That taking the whole United States together, the whites increase faster than the blacks; but that in the states in which the blacks are very numerous, they have almost uniformly increased faster than the whites, in those states. In Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the blacks, for the last thirty years, have increased much faster than the whites. In North Carolina and Tennessee, they have increased more than as fast again, and in South Carolina, during the last ten years, they have increased three times as fast. In the northern states, on the contrary, the black population is almost stationary, and in Maine, New-Hampshire, and Rhode-Island, it is diminishing. 3. That in all our great cities the females are more numerous than the males, while in the whole United States the reverse is true. The average of all the cities gives nearly one hundred and nine females to one hundred males, whereas, in the whole United States, the average of females is but ninety-seven to one hundred males.

Section XXIX. **Education.** The education of youth, which is so essential to the well being of society, and intimately connected with the political prosperity of a republican government, has received, as has been noticed in the progress of this work, considerable attention in the United States, in every period since their settlement. The present state of our primary and higher schools, of our colleges, universities, and other establishments of education, is more flourishing than at any former period; their number is annually increasing, and a more liberal spirit, in respect to their endowment, is prevailing.

In all the New-England States, excepting Rhode-Island, common schools are supported by law. In this latter state, how-

* S. E. Morse, who has recently published a valuable Geography, to which the author is indebted for many important facts in these notes.

ever, academies are established in all the principal towns, and private schools are extensively maintained, during the winter months. In the new state of Maine, a sum, exceeding one hundred thousand dollars, is raised by tax, and appropriated to the support of a school master for every two hundred inhabitants. The number of school houses is estimated at fifteen hundred.

In Connecticut the common schools are supported by a fund, arising from the sale of lands in Ohio, which formerly belonged to the state. This fund amounted in May 1821, to one million and seven hundred thousand dollars, the yearly income of which, together with twelve thousand dollars of the publick taxes, is annually devoted to the maintenance of common school masters, in every town in the state. The amount paid to the towns from this fund, in 1818, was more than seventy thousand dollars, a greater sum by twenty-two thousand dollars than the whole state tax amounted to in the year preceding.

A common school fund exists, also, in the state of New-York. In 1822, it consisted of more than one million one hundred thousand dollars, and twenty-five thousand acres of land. The sum, which this fund annually yields, is nearly eighty thousand dollars, and it assists to give instruction to nine tenths of the children of that populous state, between the ages of five and fifteen years. Besides the common schools and colleges, there are nearly fifty incorporated academies. There is also a literary fund of nearly one hundred thousand dollars, the interest of which is annually distributed to the several colleges and academies of the state.

In Virginia, a literary fund has recently been created by the legislature, consisting of monies received from the United States, for military services during the late war. It amounted, in December, 1818, to about one million and one hundred thousand dollars, to which is yet to be added a balance, due from the United States. The interest of this sum, with the addition of fines, forfeitures, &c. which have also been appropriated to the same object, will, in the opinion of the Directors, yield an annual income of nearly ninety thousand dollars. Of this sum forty-five thousand dollars annually have been appropriated to the support of primary schools, and fifteen thousand dollars to the endowment of a university.

Until within a few years, the subject of education has received but little attention in North Carolina. Much zeal, however, has recently been displayed in the establishment of academies and schools. Previously to 1804, there were but two academies in the state; there are now fifty, and the number is still increasing.

In South Carolina, academies are numerous; the legislature

annually appropriates thirty thousand dollars for the support of free schools. In 1817, the state of Georgia gave one hundred thousand dollars for the same object. In the states of Alabama, Ohio, and Illinois, provision has been made, by the United States, for the education of youth, one section, or a thirty-sixth part of every township, being granted by the act of congress that admitted these states to the union, for the support of common schools, and in addition one, and in some states, two townships for the support of a college. Till recently, education has been much neglected in Louisiana, and many of the inhabitants are unable either to read or write. Lately, the attention of the governme nt has been directed to this subject, and schools and higher seminaries of learning are establishing in various parts of the state.

Several universities and colleges have been added to the literary institutions in the United States, within this period. Of universities, two have recently commenced operations in the state of Ohio, one at Athens, on the Hockhocking, by the name of the Ohio University; the other at Oxford, near the south west corner of the state, by the name of the Miami University. The former of these has two townships of land, or forty-six thousand acres, and an annual income of two thousand three hundred dollars; the latter has one township which yields about two thousand dollars.

Besides these, there is a flourishing college at Cincinnati, which was incorporated in 1819, and which has funds amounting to thirty thousand dollars. A medical college is connected with it. Worthington college was incorporated during the same year. In 1818, Transylvania university, in Lexington, Kentucky, was re-organized and placed upon a more liberal foundation. The number of students now exceeds three hundred. A college was established in 1819 at Danville, about thirty miles southwest from Lexington.

A university has recently been commenced at Charlottesville, in Albemarle county, Virginia. The plan contemplates ten professorships; and the buildings, consisting of ten pavillions for the professors, five hotels for dieting the students, with one hundred and four dormitories sufficient for two hundred and eight students, are already finished, in an elegant style of architecture. A college has recently gone into operation in the District of Columbia. It is situated three miles from the capital. A Baptist Theological seminary is to be connected with the institution. Besides these institutions, there are several others, viz. a Charity school at Bangor, Maine, whose object is to prepare young men for the ministry, in a shorter time than is usual at other seminaries; a Baptist literary and theological seminary at Waterville, on

Reflections.

XXX. Upon concluding this history of our country, we can scarcely refrain from asking, who of our ancestors anticipated results from their toils, so stupendous as those which we behold? Who of them predicted, while they were laying up the pines of the forest for a shelter, that they were commencing an empire, which, within two centuries, would extend thousands of miles, and embrace, within its bosom, ten millions of the human race? Who then thought of cities, with their busy population, a thousand miles from the waters of the Atlantick?—or of fleets, on inland seas, proceeding to, and returning from distant voyages? or of navies pouring forth their thunder and their flame? Such results entered not into sober calculation, and were beyond even the dreams of fancy. Yet two centuries have brought them to pass.

The branch which our fathers planted, under the fostering care of heaven, rose, extended, invigorated. It acquired stability by oppression, and gathered importance from the efforts which were made to crush it. In the progress of our history, we have seen the American people, while sustaining only the character of colonists, and struggling with the discouragements and difficulties of new settlements, maintaining at their own expense, and bringing to prosperous conclusion, wars, which a selfish and jealous mother country, by her pride and imprudence, had occasioned. We have seen these colonies, amidst all the oppressions which they experienced, through exactions, and calumnies, loss of charters, and one abridgment of liberty after another, still maintaining their loyalty—still indulging the feelings, and adopting the language of affection, until justice and patriotism and religion bid them rise to assert those rights, which the God of nature designed for all his rational offspring.

Through a long and trying war, in which inexperience had to contend with discipline, and poverty with wealth, we see them pledging their fortunes, liberties, and lives to one another, and, to the astonishment of the world, accomplishing their emancipation. And when emancipated, and transformed into an independent nation, we see them calmly betaking themselves to the organization of a government, under a constitution as wise as it was singular, and whose excellency and competency the experience of more than thirty years has confirmed.—Simultaneously with these events, what extensive conquests have been made on the wilderness! Deserts have put on beauty and fruitfulness,

the Kennebeck; and one at New-York, belonging to the Protestant Episcopal Church. A Theological institution has also been established at Auburn, New-York, by the Presbyterians. Several others are in contemplation in the country.

The foregoing facts, in relation to the state of our common and higher institutions of learning, no American, in whose bosom glows the spirit of the patriot, will regard with indifference. Like the light of heaven, science cheers, beautifies, and adorns. To its influence are we indebted for much of the civil and religious freedom which we enjoy, and intimately connected with its progress are the future honour and happiness of our country. An intelligent people will select intelligent rulers, and intelligent rulers will manage safely the government confided to their trust. "There is scarcely one instance brought" says Bacon, "of a disastrous government, where learned men have been seated at the helm."

The general diffusion of knowledge tends also to make peaceable citizens. "It causes men," in the language of a periodical work of our own country, "to have just views of the nature, value, and relations of things, the purposes of life, the tendency of actions, to be guided by purer motives, to form nobler resolutions, and to press forward to more desirable attainments. Knowledge smooths down the roughness and tames the native ferocity of man." Our ancestors knew these things; they were aware of the importance of knowledge among the people to the strength of the social and political fabrick, which they were commencing; they, therefore, when they laid the foundations of their dwellings, almost simultaneously laid the foundations of our common and higher seminaries of learning.

A steady, though too slow an advance has been making in relation to science, through the whole period of our history. The importance of it is more generally admitted, and greater favour is shown towards those institutions which are devoted to its cultivation. Far distant be the day, when the prevalence of ignorance shall expose us to anarchy, and leave us to become the victims to some ambitious, turbulent, faithless spirit, who may rise to wield the sword of despotism. On the contrary, may knowledge continue to increase, and with it that love of justice, virtue, and religion, which, under the blessing of heaven, will make our beloved country perpetually the seat of peace and freedom.

and a way been constantly extending towards the waters of the Pacifick, for the advance of civilization and religion.

Had we the spirit of prophecy, in respect to the future condition of America, this would not be the place to indulge it. No nation, however, ever possessed, in a higher degree, the means of national prosperity. Our territory is ample—our soil fertile—our climate propitious—our citizens enterprising, brave, and persevering. A sea coast of three thousand miles—inland seas, numerous canals, facilitate foreign and domestick trade. Being free and independent of other nations, we can frame our laws, and fashion our institutions, as experience and an enlightened policy shall dictate. Our universities and colleges are yearly qualifying numbers for the higher professions of life, while our academies and schools are diffusing intelligence, to an unparalleled extent, among our virtuous yeomanry. The Bible and the institutions of Christianity are with us, and are presenting to us all the blessings which religion can impart. Thus circumstanced, what should prevent our country from advancing to that eminence of national happiness, beyond which national happiness cannot extend?—"Manufactures may here rise—busy commerce, inland and foreign, distribute our surplus produce, augment our capital, give energy to industry, improvement to roads, patronage to arts and sciences, vigour to schools, and universality to the institutions of religion; reconciling civil liberty with efficient government; extended population with concentrated action; and unparalleled wealth with sobriety and morality."

Let but the spirit, the practical wisdom, the *religious integrity* of the first planters of our soil, prevail among rulers and subjects—let God be acknowledged, by giving that place to his word and institutions which they claim—and all these blessings are ours. We shall enjoy peace with nations abroad, and tranquillity at home. As years revolve, the tide of our national prosperity will flow broader and deeper. In the beautiful language of inspiration—"our sons will be as plants grown up in their youth, and our daughters as corner stones, polished after the similitude of a palace. Our garners will be full, including all manner of stores, our sheep will bring forth by thousands, and ten thousands; our oxen will be strong to labour, and there will be no breaking in, or going out, or complaining in our streets. —Happy is that people that is in such a case, yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."

THE END

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